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ABSTRACT

This proceedings contains approximately 92 presentations focusing on rural education and rural special education. Topics include: meeting the needs of handicapped and disabled students in rural areas; education and inservice training of special education teachers; teacher cooperation models; higher education of at-risk students; rural teacher education; job satisfaction and burnout among rural teachers; transition from school to work for learning disabled and other special education students; school-community and school-business partnerships; teaching methods, educational strategies, and alternative instruction for at-risk students; educational cooperation between districts; culturally relevant education for rural areas; distance learning technology for rural education and information access; vocational special education; dropout prevention programs and strategies; issues for rural public colleges and universities; effects on rural schools of reform legislation and "one best model" approaches; issues related to educational diagnosis and identification of at-risk students; national survey of at-risk status in rural, urban, and suburban schools; multigrade instruction; substance abuse prevention; organizational structure of rural schools; supported employment in rural areas; education for gifted students; negative effects of grade repetition on at-risk students; the role of the rural special education administrator; and social skills instruction for rural special education students. (SV)

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"REACHING OUR POTENTIAL: RURAL EDUCATION IN THE 90s"

1991 RURAL EDUCATION SYMPOSIUM

MARCH 17-20, 1991

Nashville, Tennessee

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ACRES PRESENTATION:
General Session
Presenter: Yvonne Stone
Co-Presenter: Sue Hovey
Co-Presenter: Nellie Kanesta
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 8:30am-10:15am

Panel Discussion:
"Meeting the Needs of Rural Students At-Risk"

Panel Participants:

Yvonne Stone
UNISERV Director, Missouri NEA

Sue Hovey
Teacher, Moscow, ID and
NEA Executive Board

Nellie Kanesta
Counselor, Ramah Navajo School Board
Pine Hill, NM

Built around the theme, "A Disability Can Be Beautiful--A Disability Can Be Positive," this panel discussion points out differences in perceptions of the term "disability" and how personal beliefs are influenced and opinions are adjusted in the process of living, working with, and teaching children with handicaps. Presenting the panel, Yvonne discusses the importance of attitudinal changes in attempting to change the paradigm, or commonly held beliefs.

Nellie Kanesta: I have a daughter that is handicapped--she was born with multiple sclerosis--and at first it was hard for me to accept her and to love her. I thought it was a stigma upon me because I was a bad parent, because of my substance abuse and neglect. As years went by, I blamed myself a lot. I couldn't get near her and when I was near her, I couldn't touch her. But later on I met this wonderful spiritual leader up in Missoula, Montana, who told me that being a handicapped parent brings you closer to the universe and to the people around you. Being a parent of a handicapped person gives you the tolerance, the patience, the understanding and the care these children need. Handicapped children are unique in their own way; even if some of them can't walk, some of them can't talk, or some of them can't lift their heads. He called me a special mother. After he talked to me, I went back and looked at her and finally admitted, 'It wasn't my fault; a higher power gave her to me like that for a very special reason; to teach me that she is no different than I. She is an individual, with rights and dignity, and I need to respect her as much as I can. That's when I started my grieving process, letting go of my fears and giving thanks for her life.

My daughter has since graduated from high school; and is now working in Zuni with the Rehab Program making candles and electronic things. She has her own banking account. She is independent, but she lives with her grandma because now and them she goes into seizures. Just watching her improve, getting off her crutches and talking, is beautiful. They told us that she would never walk or talk and that she would always be a baby. But my mom had more faith than I did and she worked with her while I was still coming to terms with my grief. I have come to the point where I am not ashamed of her anymore. We go shopping together, we play games together, her brothers and sisters help her, her nieces and nephews help her.

On the reservation, the kids that are handicapped do not go to school; their families tend to hide them away from the public. They are kept at home and the grandparents take care of them. Sadly, they are teachable, but since we do not have a school for them in our area, most of them have to be sent away and most Navajos' do not take the option to let their kids go and learn what they need to be self-supporting. And at the tribal schools, even children with multiple handicaps or emotional disturbance have sensed that many teachers tend to look down on them--because they can't read or they can't write, or its harder for them to comprehend math. The teachers become frustrated and angry--when these students ask for help they may respond with, 'Not now,' or 'I'm too busy, can't you wait 'til later.' These children will wait until school is out and they still haven't received any help. They are taught to think, 'They don't want to help me. I'm no good. So what do I care?' We have a high truancy rate in our community and many kids have turned to substance abuse. Many of our little kids have turned to suicide this year. It's sad to see a second grader or a fifth grader wanting to kill themselves, because they hurt. I've tried to commit suicide myself, three times. I felt that no one understood me--nobody wants to help me. Without anyone to care and help, it leads a person to think they are bad; so they might as well be bad. So I once chose that road but now I choose a different road--to educate myself and others.

It has not been easy trying to educate children of our own culture, either. We go off to school for our teaching degree, but when we come back to our home communities, there are no jobs available for us, or we are limited from the work force due to nepotism. Many tribal leaders have relatives they would rather put in before anybody else. Also, confidentiality is very hard to maintain because we are all so closely intertwined in relationships, clan-wise and through marriages. The teachers may be so interrelated that they will not communicate about the difficulties the children may be experiencing at home. The teacher may deny that anything is happening in the family; Problems don't get reported, no follow up is done on the family. This denial hurts not only the children but the entire family, because nothing can be done to really help them. And by reporting incidents, we run the risk of losing our jobs. I report what I have to, and I'm usually threatened with losing my job--sometimes it's scary, but my primary concern is not with myself, but with the children and their families.

So, it's hard working with my own people. But because I am a Navajo, I am entrusted in working with my people and have a special rapport with the children. They can come and tell me anything, and because I myself feel like a kid, growing up, we can communicate. We both share the experiences and the difficulties working together in the classroom setting, in therapy.

We started a new program two weeks ago, working with twenty-eight kindergartners with emotional behavior-disorders. It's very difficult--they have so much anger geared toward their parents because of sexual abuse or physical abuse, mostly verbal abuse. They feel very insecure and they do not know where to let go of that anger, so it comes out at recess time on the playgrounds or on the school buses, Sometimes you feel these kids are more dangerous to themselves than to other kids. But we take them out of class and work with them three times a week in intense conferences. It is very stressful to me because I can feel their pain and their hurt, their frustration, and their own lack of self-esteem. But to be honest with you, I think these kids are very beautiful and very worth saving, because they are going to be our future leaders on the reservation someday. If we can reach them at an early age, I think they are salvagable.

To me, a handicap means a beautiful flower opening up for the first time that is going to bloom and be more productive. When people take the time to say, 'hey, you're ok,' give a hug and talk with these special children, many times they effuse much love because they are starving for the love not received at home. So, as we Indian people say, 'What we give, is given back to other people, and received a thousand times more.'

Life on the reservation is very hard, very frustrating. To teachers coming from 'outside,' used to having the support of a large community, it can be very stressful. But we welcome anybody who wants to come out and try it--come live with us for a couple of weeks before going into the work force. You will experience our culture, our traditions, our values--and you will be surprised how similar we are to you. Many of us live in houses with electricity and running water. But on another level of the reservation, the people live in the traditional *hogan*, and they are dirt poor. The *hogan*-dwellers all sleep in that round room, they all eat in that round room. They use kerosene for lamps or propane lamps. It gets very cold in those *hogans* during the wintertime. But you know, the unity of the *hogan* is like the womb of a child in the family of a mother. It is encircled and the chimney is the umbilical cord, to keep us all warm and healthy, and to keep us growing; the *hogan* is a place within us. In the *hogan* we teach our traditions, arts and crafts and our language. If you see our traditional dances, I think you will understand where our inner spirituality comes from.

We have such a beautiful country, no matter where we go, appreciate all the beauty around you because our creator gave it to us. Enjoy the sunrise and the sunset, the land and everybody in your life. Yesterday is gone and tomorrow may never come--we can only live in today.

Sue Hovey: I work, as all of you do, with children at-risk; children with disabilities. And if you are in the public education system, you will work with children or students at risk. There are 45 million children in public and private education, K-12, and there are estimates that as many as half of those children can be considered in significant risk. So you and I will be touching upon their lives in many, many ways.

Twelve million children today are in poverty. That's almost 20 percent of the total population in poverty, and it's our fastest growing population. Of teenage pregnancy, 12 percent of all the births in 1987 were to young women under the age of 20 and over 10,000 of those births were to young women under the age of 13. You and I have to deal with the consequences of those pregnancies because when one looks at the data, half of those young women drop out of school and half of those who drop out never return. We, as educators, face many difficulties in dealing with the consequences of acts of which we have absolutely no control. Yet we have to deal with these issues if we're going to be of any help in creating a society that can help these young people. And I know that's difficult.

I want to talk to you today about disabilities from a somewhat different perspective than Nellie. I have yet to be persuaded that disabilities themselves are beautiful. Although, I have a disabled young daughter, who is beautiful (defined early on in her life as educably mentally retarded). I, like Nellie, had a hard time understanding that what happened to my daughter was not my fault; or if it was my fault, I didn't do it on purpose--and, it took a long time to get over that. But in somewhat attempting to help me in my own misery a young woman said to me one day, 'God must have loved you a lot to have given you this special child.' Now that may have been comfort to some people, but it was no comfort to me. As a matter of fact, I wished God hadn't loved me quite so much! Growing up with her has been an adventure, an exciting adventure, certainly, and I have learned, as has my husband and our two other children, that she is a unique person as each one of us is unique.

But her disabilities are not so much unique as they are different from the rest of us only in time and in degree. When Leslie was 21 years old, we got her this really good job working at the University of Idaho, and she brought home her first wealth. She was going to bring home her first paycheck and we were so proud of her and were bragging on her, and we kept saying 'Where is it?' And she kept saying, 'Well, uh, they haven't given it to us yet.' Well, two weeks passed and I was beginning to get very angry, you know--somebody exploiting my baby! Until I discovered that she had received her paycheck on time and she finally admitted that what she had done is taken her $36 and gone to the local pizza parlor with her friends. She had treated to them to pizza and video games and beer! And we were quite upset until I remembered that, well you know, when I got my first paycheck, I was about Leslie's age. I'll bet you money that what I did with it, was treat my friends to pizza and video games and beer! So, I say to you that, Leslie is now 26 years old, and I have begun to understand, really that is all truly, a matter of degree.

There have been good days and there have been poignant days, but not only has my daughter with her disabilities been an asset and a blessing to our family, she is also a blessing to our neighborhood and to our community. Because people have learned to care, who have learned what her needs are. We have a neighbor who is about four years younger than our daughter. When our neighbor was turning five years old, she had a birthday party and invited Leslie. As the cake was being dished out and the ice cream was being handed around, one of the little five year olds said to my daughter, 'Leslie, what does it mean to be retarded?' Well you know the mother just about died--and Leslie responded, 'Well, it means you don't have very many friends.' And the mother, of course, came to us with tears in her eyes saying, 'Oh, I would not have had that happen for anything in the world.' And fortunately, we were able to respond to her and say, 'Well, but wasn't it a lesson to the people who were there.' Because that is true in what it does mean.

I don't know how many of you have read the article, the title was 'Public Law 94-142: Mainstream or Quicksand,' but one of the points the author made, is that mainstreaming young people is certainly a good idea, but it is not the solution for all their problems and let us never forget that. She went on to say, that the disabled child who comes into the classroom may interact well with his or her peers at that moment and during that time, but except in the most extraordinary of cases, that young child when he or she goes home, will not get a telephone call from those peers or will not have the opportunity to interact with them socially; and those are very acute needs for all young people--disabled people as well as others. This is an ethical and moral dilemma that any parent encounters with any child.

Dating--you know when she was little we never thought of her as having the ability to date or to be a sexual human being, or to marry--and yet those are all opportunities for her. Our daughter Leslie has a boyfriend named Kenny. We had Kenny over last Thanksgiving for dinner, and all of us were a little bit anxious about it because Kenny had been going through some real problems, and sometimes he doesn't respond appropriately in social situations. I was sitting at the table--I'd fixed Thanksgiving dinner--and my husband and our daughter were in the kitchen area, cleaning up the dishes. Kenny looked up and said, 'Dad's don't belong in the kitchen--Dad's belong at the table and Mother's belong at the sink.' Well, my eldest daughter turned to him and said, 'Kenny, in this house, Dad cleans up the dishes and I help.' Kenny just couldn't deal with that--he got up and walked out. Now Kenny has seizures occassionally when he gets real upset and Leslie looked at me and says, 'Mother! He may have a seizure!' So Leslie and I got in the pickup and found Kenny and brought him back. And Kenny finished up his dinner and has since become more or less accustomed to the fact that occassionally, I don't go into the kitchen. But there are all kinds of dilemmas that we face, not only with the dating.

Julia Thomason, in the Education Department of Appalachian State College, deals with the placing of special and regular education teachers, and she said, 'You know, it's really difficult to place teachers in junior high school and have them learn and know that kids are not necessarily of an academic inclination at that period of time in their life. I know that doesn't come as a surprise to you--she said, 'Actually, when you look at seventh graders, they're only interested in one thing. She said 'The difference between seventh grade girls and seventh grade boys is that seventh grade boys think about sex and seventh grade girls think about when they're going to get their 'parts'.' Well, I can tell you right now that disabled people think about the same things, and ask the same questions, and get involved in the same activities. And you worry yourself to death, but you do it with your non-disabled children too.

I have a friend with a young daughter who has Down's Syndrome, and it came that time in her life she became sexually mature. Now, rightly or wrongly, we feel that many times our children would not be responsible parents, and that the responsibility for parenthood, if in fact that did occur, would fall upon us. And we feel that we are not up to that job--that was my revolution anyway. This friend of mine took her young daughter to a doctor to ask her about sterilization, and he said to her, 'I can tell you that Robin will never be able to balance a checkbook, but I cannot tell you that she would't be a good mother.' And you're thinking, 'What in the hell do you see motherhood as being!' Because the concern that we have is that all of those children, if they have children, will have children who need sustained care, love, education and that responsibility will fall to us--the parents.

Alice Walker says in her book, The Temple of My Familiar, "Keep in mind always, the present you are constructing. It should lead to the future you want." Well for those of us who have young sons and daughters who are disabled, that becomes a very, very significant part of our lives: We must plan not only for our old age, but also plan for the possibility that we may outlive our children. In a session dealing with schools in the twenty-first century and the data that we know will occur, there was discussion around the 'sandwich generation.' Those, primarily females, who are sandwiched between the care-for children and the care-for older adults. There was an article in the New York Times, a couple of months ago, that dealt with the 'sandwich generation' as they grow older. Interestingly enough, those parents whose children were institutionalized in the early years, may not have the problem because there are still placement opportunities for their sons and daughters. But those parents who chose to keep their children home--those parents are oftentimes faced with an absolutely unsolvable problem. There are no placement opportunities for those middle-aged disabled or elderly adult, or adult disabled people. So as you have to plan your futures, those of us with disabled children have an intervening variable that not everyone has to deal with. But this is the only reality that we know; this is our family and we love every member of it, and we are proud of every member of it.

I want to close by reading you a piece of a poem that deals with how to respond to a disabled person. It's titled "Think of Me First as a Person:"

"Though it is comfortable to be babied
I am less dependent
When people treat me as a big boy.
I don't want their sympathy.
I want their respect for what I can do.
Even though I am slow
And many things that you take for granted
Are really hard for me,
I can hardly understand what tomorrow means.
But I remember the months that it took me
To finally learn how to pedal that big blue bicycle
When both my feet got on both those pedals
And it finally went forward,
And how happy I was when I turned on the faucet
To get a drink of water and the water came
I thought I might never want to turn it off again.
If I can learn at my own pace
And still be accepted,
I can fit into a society where slowness is suspect.
So think of me first as a person

Who hurts, and loves and feels joy
And know that I am a child to encourage and teach.
Just smile and say hello
For oftentime even that, is enough."

Yvonne Stone: There are no learning disabilities in my family. I am not handicapped in any way. At least I never thought that I was, growing up in the family that I grew up in. I grew up in a normal family; a father and a mother and sisters. And we all went to elementary school, public school, until my mother got tired of fighting battles at the public school and put us all in a parochial school. We went to parochial school through high school and then at various stages, went to college.

One day my mother said to me, as my sisters and I were talking and she was listening to our conversation, 'How'd y'all get prejudiced? I didn't raise you like that--Why are you saying the things you are saying?' And we kind of thought about it, you know, and thought well, 'Guess she did--she always told us that everybody was equal and that we could do anything we wanted to do and there'd be no problems. Just work hard and go forth.' We believed her, and we tried to do that, but in doing that, we came into society. We're from Harlem, New York, and there are certain ideas that people have about people from Harlem. But mother also thought that we had to go downtown, to Fifth Avenue, too, and so she dragged us to all those places that would make us well-rounded young ladies. And I am grateful to her for taking the time to do that.

But no longer can we depend on the family to do that--mothers and fathers. We no longer have appreciation of the extended family, where grandparents and aunts and uncles could take on that responsibility too. So therefore, the responsibility falls on the educator. As a kindergarten teacher, I went into the classroom with a 'save the world', cutesy-cutesy stuff. And I was having problems with the idea of kindergartner's coming to me saying, 'I can't do this--I cannot learn. I don't know A from B.' I began to really look at that situation--what's going on here? The school system can't be blamed because the child hasn't been in a school setting before this.

Later in my career, after teaching K-12, I went back and counseled elementary school children. I discovered that the problem was beyond the classroom; they were in the home. There were reasons for pre-schoolers coming to me saying, 'I can't learn this--it doesn't mean anything to me, it's not of value to me.' So, I began to look at the parent that was dropping that child off. And one year a parent came in, walked straight down the hallway because she was late, handed me her child and looked at me and said 'Goodbye'--and turned around and walked out. Well, needless to say, the child was crying, hollering, screaming, kicking, and although I know I had said to them on the first day of school, please do not hang around because of the child--I did not mean to leave them kicking and screaming and hollering! But she was essentially saying to me, 'Look, I had her, I kept her, I did all the things I was supposed to do--now it's my turn.' And what I really understood what she was telling me that she, the mother, had missed her childhood. This was a four year old child and the mother was nineteen--and this was becoming the norm for my kindergarten class, where the mother was in her teens or very early twenties. What she was telling me was now she had to do the things that she had missed doing when she had this child. And I could understand that, but now it was my responsibility to teach self-esteem. To encourage this child to learn. Because the children were not going to learn A and B and 1 and 2 unless I told them they were capable of doing so.

In a previous session we talked about programs for next year--and in connecting with the community and building a coalition, and a question was asked, 'Well why do you have to do that.' As a counselor, I found myself dealing with the wholistic child; with the total environment of the child. When you have a child that is going home to a house with holes in the walls and December is approaching, you know that the child is not going to be in school very long because that child will fall ill. So therefore, it is my responsibility as a counselor to go to Social Services or to the Housing Authorities and tell them, there is a family in need. Or if one of the parents is unsupported or has a problem, say with substance abuse, it is my responsibility to say to the other parent, 'These are the services you can get--I can help you but you have to make the first step.' These are issues educational professionals must deal with, and we cannot run away from that responsibility. When that multicultural child walks into your room--and that child may be a Native American, Hispanic, an Asian Pacific Islander, or an African-American--it is going to be your responsibility to find out about that child: You are to find out the cultural needs of that child. You cannot just expect that child to be who you want them to be, because their culture may limit them.

I worked in rural America, where every year we knew the migrant workers were coming. And every year we were unprepared. But it was our responsibility as the classroom teacher to try to make do without anyone to translate for us. One year I went into the community and found people to translate my letter to the parents for the kindergartners' trip to the Philadelphia Zoo. I also went to the local college and found a student to interpret the signs to the children. The administration's response was to just leave the child at school. But I did not want to do that--I wanted those children to experience what kindergarten was all about, and what the trip was all about.

At the conference last year I did a session about the needs in the rural schools. After the program someone came to me and said, 'There is one thing that you taught me, and that was never to forget from where you came from.' I take my heritage to the classroom with me. This is something I am learning more and more about every day; but this is education I did not receive in school. I was not taught about the 'Buffalo Soldiers,' out in the west, so named by the Native Americans. Being proud of the Buffalo, the Native Americans thought these black men were great achievers and great warriors. So they were named Buffalo Soldiers. No one told me that my ancestors were here before the Mayflower. I'm also Native American--Cherokee, from the eastern tribe of Cherokee located in what is now Black Creek, Tennessee. My grandmother had saved the discharge papers of my great-grandfather, from the Civil War. We discovered through the 1877 census, because of those papers, the reason why he was in the Civil War. He was moved from the plantation he was on to go with the daughter who had married. He went with her, and made sure that she was settled, and then he walked off. Now because he was a Native American, he was able to blend in with the other Native Americans. If he had been part of my father's heritage, from Africa, he would not have been able to do that. So therefore, he walked off, joined the Civil War and became a scout for the Union Army. I know that. I ask you to appreciate that and understand that. Do not take that away from me.

My job now with the NEA is in rural Missouri. There are certain parts of rural Missouri that I'm not welcome, and I have to be conscious of that. I can't take the backroads of rural Missouri. Yes, I've taken Highway 50 from Union all the way up to Jefferson City, but I won't do it at night. Yes, I've taken 47 from Washington up to Warrington, but I won't do it at night. Because if my car gets stuck, and I did 15,800 miles last year in the state of Missouri, not only do I have to worry about trying to find a gas station, I have to worry about would I be accepted at that gas station. And that's a reality for me. You have to think about that when you hire minorities. A lot of times people hire us for the sake of having one of us there--but remember, with the glory of having you there, the responsibility of having you there goes along with it. You have to allow them to raise your consciousness to the level that you begin to understand what they are going through.

I taught a lesson one day in Augusta, Missouri, and the regular teacher, 60-something years old, had received a letter from a parent that said she was not being 'creative enough.' So I went to her class and gave an art lesson and we did some creative play. At the end of the lesson one of the little girls walked up to me and said, 'Miss Stone?' And I said, 'Yes?' She said, 'Why are you brown?' And I said, 'Oh, well, you see, I just came back from Florida (which I had), and I got a tan.' And so she kinda looked at me and I said, 'Do you believe that?' And she said, 'Nooo.' So I got everybody quiet because I figured well, if she had that question, there were others in the room that had the same question and just weren't brave enough to ask. Well, I thought the teacher was going to pass right out and die, I really did. So I told them that I was going to answer her question and I wanted to answer it for everybody. And I told them about my heritage, and why the color of my skin was brown. Augusta is near Washington, Missouri, but very few of those children get beyond Augusta. It's in the wine country of Missouri. And so, I received a letter a couple of weeks later from the parent making the initial complaints about the teacher. And I don't think she really understood why I was there and helping the teacher, but her note said to me that she was very grateful that her child had the experience of meeting a woman of color and to be able to enjoy her, other than what she saw on television. And I appreciate that--since she had been doing the complaining--and I shared that with the teacher, also. Those are the kind of things that make the job worthwhile.

I think that's something all of us have to do--stick our neck out. If this world is going to be better than what it is today, we must have the courage to stick our necks out. To speak up when the joke is told in the teacher's lounge. And I know that's hard to do, but we're going to have to do it--because it was a joke about females or it was racial. And if someone tells one of those jokes, you could be offended. Someone could step on your toes, and then you walk in my mocassins. You walk in my shoes--you take kin to me, and see how that feels--it's not funny. So, it takes courage to say, 'I don't think that was really nice, I don't think that was funny.' We have to look at things from another person's perspective. I'm not talking about your perspective--I'm talking about my perspective, I'm talking about Nellie's perspective or Sue's child's perspective--that's what you have to look at. Remember, we all want to be eagles, no matter what our handicap is, we all want to soar, and be great, and do the things that are positive--to make us proud of ourselves and to make others around us proud. So remember to stick your neck out, remember to stoop down and mentor somebody.

The rules are always changing. I do a workshop on emerging leaders, and in that workshop we talk about knowing the structure of where you are trying to go. If you don't know the rules you can't get there. So, sometimes, I need one of you to stop, teach me the rules, teach me the structure. Doris Helge did that for in inviting us to this conference--I came here as a classroom teacher. Mike Green at a NEA Convention said rural America is important, and that we've got to organize and speak out on rural issues. So he formed the Rural and Small Schools Caucus for NEA. Through the Caucus I came into the American Council on Rural Special Education and met Doris, who has stuck her neck out for us to be able to participate in this conference.

So we need more of you to stick your neck out. I have to know your culture to get to where I am, you don't have to know mine. You don't have to know Nellie's, and we understand that, but we ask you to be patient and be tolerant, and learn our culture. Try to be a part of our culture, because through that, you will learn dignity, you will have courage, you will be enlightened and you will be motivated. You will learn team building and develop a team that works. Yes, you have to make some attitudinal adjustments in the process--a paradigm shift. But we will have the patience to let you make those attitudinal adjustments. You will have sensitivity, you will learn that a disability, as you perceive it, can be beautiful. Thank you very much."

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Charles Woodford
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

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Hearing Aids and Hearing Impaired Students in Rural Schools

Generally, most people who have difficulty hearing can obtain some benefit from a hearing aid. The amount of benefit depends upon the nature of the hearing loss, the attitude and personal characteristics of the individual, the effectiveness of the hearing aid fitting, instruction in use of the instrument, and of course, the condition of the hearing aid itself. Hearing aids do not "correct" hearing as eye glasses correct vision, they are a tool with much depending upon the skill with which they are used. The effective use of a hearing aid requires effort, it does not passively correct hearing. This effort coupled with the "hassle" of putting it in the ear, maintaining it, and paying for it are on the debit side of hearing aid use. An effective hearing aid fitting is dependent upon the benefit gained from use outweighing the personal disadvantages. This being the case, the probability that a child will benefit from his hearing aid will increase with a reduction in disadvantages and/or increase in benefit. A major cause of decreasing benefit as well as increasing aggravation is hearing aid dysfunction. This paper will describe functions of the various components of hearing aids, and a procedure to detect hearing aid dysfunction.

Hearing aids come in a variety of shapes, sizes and styles* (See Figure 1). All of them have a number of things in common, that is regardless of differences, each hearing aid must have some basic components. Each component has a specific function which is necessary for the system to operate effectively. These will be discussed separately below.

Microphone: The function of the microphone is to transduce (change in form) acoustical energy to electrical energy. The microphone consists of a diaphragm which is a thin plate that moves in response to and in proportion to the pressure variations in a sound, and some form of coupling to a mechanism which either produces or modifies an electrical signal in a manner proportional to its' movement. We better run through that again. The diaphragm is displaced by the pressure variations in a sound. The diaphragm is coupled to some device capable of producing or modifying an electric current. The result is that the device produces or modifies a current proportional to its displacement which is dependent upon diaphragm movement which is dependent upon pressure variations of the acoustic signal. In this manner an electrical analogue of the original sound is produced.

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*By far the most common type of hearing aid found in schools is the behind the ear type. In the ear types are rarely used with children due to rapid growth, i.e. with the ear mold an integral part of the hearing aid, the child would have to be without amplification while a new mold is made.

Amplifier: The amplifier uses the very small electrical signal from the microphone to control or modulate a much larger electrical signal. The result of this process is a larger electrical analogue of the electrical output of the microphone. Usually this amplification process occurs through several stages to achieve the desired magnitude.

The amplifier is the primary user of current in a hearing aid. How long a battery lasts (battery life) is dependent primarily on the amplifier. In most hearing aids, the amount of current drain is constant at all volume control settings. That is, how high the hearing aid is "turned up" does not affect how long the batteries will last. However with some high output hearing aids that use a "push-pull" type amplifier, the current drain increases with increased volume and with increases in level of input (sound level at the microphone). We will see in the next section that we can determine fairly accurately how many hours of use a battery will provide with most hearing aids.

Power supply: The power supply for most hearing aids is a 1.3 to 1.5 volt cell or "battery." The cells are usually "button" cells, which are very small in size, but some body type hearing aids use standard AAA alkaline cells or similar types. The power supply furnishes the electrical power needed by the microphone and amplifier to produce and amplify the electrical analogue of the acoustic signal.

Table 1. Range of battery capacities in milliampere hours for various battery sizes.

Battery Capacities Rated in Millampere Hours

Battery Size*	Mercury	Zinc Air
675	180-190	400
312	45	
13	85	170
41	150-160	300

*Hearing aid size is indicated by a number. Manufacturers of batteries often add letter designations too numerous to describe here, i.e. size 13 may be DA13, AC 13E, R13ZA and on and on. The most important characteristic for our purposes is the number. We need to be sure that the battery is of the size required by a particular hearing aid and this is what the number indicates.

The greater the amount of current drawn, the more rapidly the battery will "die." Since batteries are fairly expensive, battery life is a concern. Hearing aid manufacturers usually list the battery current that a particular model of hearing aid uses. The battery current is reported in milliamperes (mA). To determine how many hours a battery will last in a particular hearing aid we must divide the battery capacity listed in milliampere hours by the current drain reported by the manufacturer. The battery capacity varies with the type of battery used. For instance a 675 mercury cell has a capacity of 180 to 190 milliampere hours, if the reported current drain is 1.0 mA then we simply divide 180 milliampere hours (to be conservative) by 1.0 milliamperes and come up with 180 hours of use per battery. Other rated battery capacities are shown in Table 1. The current drain for any particular hearing aid may be obtained from the manufacturer or the audiologist or hearing aid specialist who dispensed the hearing aid. If batteries are not lasting as long as we estimate from the above calculations, it is important to find out why. The family may not be turning the hearing aid off after it is removed at night, or there may be no off position on the mode selection switch in which case the battery compartment should be opened when not in use, or there may be a problem in the hearing aid requiring return to the manufacturer. In any case the difficulty should be identified and corrected.

Hearing aid batteries are designed to maintain a constant or nearly constant voltage over their life and then lose it rapidly once the potential is used. This characteristic of batteries can pose a problem. For instance, a battery can be fine in the morning and be expired by noon. For a child in school this can result in half a day of frustration and missed information if the difficulty is not identified and corrected by replacing the "dead" battery. Hearing aid batteries should be replaced when their voltage reaches 1.2 volts or less. (Voltage checks will be discussed and/or belabored later.) Which brings up an important point. When something is replaced it implies that we have two items - that being replaced or replacee and that which has replaced the replacee - the replacor (a little humor here). In the case being discussed, the thing that has been replaced is a battery which we must now do something with. What we do with it is an important consideration. Ingestion of spent batteries can cause severe esophageal burns or even death. It is very important to keep them out of reach of children.

Volume control: The volume control is a variable resistor which can reduce the amplitude of the electrical analogue of the acoustic signal which is developed by the amplifier. It is very similar in function to the volume control on a radio or TV, and serves the same purpose, i.e., to regulate the volume of sound to a desirable level.

The volume control on hearing aids is not linear. That is, as the control is turned up or down the resultant increase or reduction in the electrical analogue of the acoustic signal may not be the same for a given amount of rotation at all levels. Typically, a relatively small movement of the volume control at lower settings results in a larger change than the same amount of movement at higher settings. Some volume controls have numbers on them. These numbers are good as a guide to what setting we may want to use for a particular hearing aid worn by a child or other persons not capable of adjusting the output for themselves. The numbers are not standardized among hearing aids or on different hearing aids of the same model. The point here is that a setting of "2" on a particular hearing aid does not result in the same output as a setting of "2" on another hearing aid. The optimal setting must be determined for each hearing aid independently.

Receiver: The receiver is analogous to the speaker on a radio or TV. It transduces the electrical signal into an acoustic signal. This component then completes the transduction/amplification cycle, that is, the original acoustic signal was transduced into an electrical analogue by the microphone, amplified, adjusted by the volume control, and now is conducted through a wire coiled around a metal core creating an electromagnetic field that is proportional to the strength of the electrical signal. The magnetic field fluctuates in strength in exactly the same manner as the electrical signal thus moving a metal diaphragm which in turn compresses and rarifies adjacent air producing an amplified acoustic signal.

Ear mold: the ear mold couples the hearing aid to the ear. The vast majority of ear molds are custom-made from an impression of individual ears in order to insure a snug and comfortable fit (See Figure 2). The ear mold may be made of hard material such as lucite or a variety of soft materials. In addition to coupling the hearing aid to the ear, i.e., directing the amplified sound into the external canal, the ear mold is often modified so that it alters the quality of the sound. A common alteration of this type is venting. This consists of drilling a small hole in the ear mold along side of or into the sound channel. Venting allows some low frequency energy to escape from the external canal and reduces the feeling of fullness that some hearing aid users experience. Generally, the larger the vent, the more low frequency energy escapes from the external canal. This alteration is often used with persons with hearing that is normal or near normal for low frequencies and a hearing loss in the higher frequencies.

There are many different types of ear molds. Each type has advantages and disadvantages in both acoustical properties and cosmetics. Regardless of the type of ear mold used, it is important that it fit properly. If the fit is too tight, it will be uncomfortable and can result in blisters or very raw, sore spots on the auricle or external canal. A loose fitting ear mold is a major cause of feedback squeal. Feedback commonly results from sound escaping from the external auditory canal, getting back to the microphone and being reamplified. The repeat amplification drives the hearing aid assembly to vibrate at its resonant frequency, producing a loud squeal. A loose fitting ear mold allows a considerable amount of sound to escape from the external canal, which often results in this annoying squeal. Methods of determining what to do about feedback are discussed under hearing aid check procedures later.

In addition to the components outlined above, many hearing aids have additional controls and/or circuits that serve specific purposes. One common added attraction is a telephone pickup. Hearing aids with this option have a position marked "T" on a selector switch. When in this position, a coil of wire replaces the microphone as the primary transducer. How in the world can a coil of wire replace a microphone? you ask. Well, it turns out that telephones have magnetic receivers similar to receivers in some hearing aids as described above. The electrical input produces an electro-magnetic field that changes as a function of the change in strength of the electrical input. The fluctuating magnetic field causes a metal diaphragm to move back and forth compressing and rarifying the adjacent air producing an acoustic signal. The magnetic field produced in the telephone receiver spills over or leaks to the surrounding area. When the telephone pickup coil is suspended in this magnetic field surrounding the telephone receiver, the fluctuating magnetic field induces (hence the term "induction") a current to flow in the telephone pickup coil. This induced current varies in proportion to variations in strength of the magnetic field radiating from the telephone receiver. The magnetic field in the telephone receiver varies proportionally with the strength of the electrical input to the telephone receiver, which is an electrical analogue of the acoustic signal on the other end of the line. Therefore the electrical current induced in the telephone pickup is an analogue of that same acoustic signal, which is amplified and transduced into an acoustic signal at the hearing aid receiver. Real clear, right? In any event, when the telephone pickup alone is activated, the hearing aid responds only to magnetic signals. Airborne sound is not amplified at all. Some hearing aids have a means of activating both microphone and telephone pickup circuits at the same time. This mode of function is normally denoted by an "MT" position on the selector switch and allows the wearer to hear amplified environmental sound and sound produced via transduction of magnetic signals. In addition to aiding an individual to hear telephone messages, the telephone pickup has application with some auditory trainers.

As is the case with any man-made device, hearing aids can and do malfunction. A breakdown may occur at any stage in the processes performed by the components described above. Several surveys of hearing aids worn by students in our schools have been reported over the past twenty years. Results of these studies have varied somewhat, but nearly all have found that about half of the hearing aids surveyed were not functioning properly. This is clearly an unacceptably large proportion.

The magnitude of this problem in our schools is accentuated by the point that many younger children hesitate to bring the difficulty to anyone's attention for any number of reasons. The result is that these students go through the school day, or several days in some cases, without benefit of amplification. It has been demonstrated that a daily hearing aid check can reduce the prevalence of malfunctioning hearing aids considerably.

In light of the consistently high prevalence of malfunctioning hearing aids reported in our schools, indications that a hearing aid monitoring program can be effective in minimizing the problem, and the notion that the hearing impaired child will live and learn most adequately when his or her hearing aid is functioning optimally, provisions to insure hearing aid monitoring have been legislated. Public Law 94-142 mandates that "Each public agency shall insure that the hearing aids worn by deaf and hard-of-hearing children in school are functioning properly." Unfortunately, neither PL 94-142 nor most states' interpretations of this law make provisions for implementing hearing aid monitoring. Subsequently, the vast majority of public school professionals have no training in performing a hearing aid check. In many cases, the public school personnel are placed in a situation where they are required by law to perform a function that they have not been trained to perform. An outline of a hearing aid check procedure follows.

A Hearing Aid Check Procedure

To perform the hearing aid check you will need a voltmeter and a hearing aid stethoscope. These tools are shown in Figure 3.

1.0 Removal of hearing aid from child's ear:

1.1. Turn mode selection switch to "T" (telephone) or "O" (off) position. This step precludes production of a feedback squeal as the ear mold is removed from the auditory canal. It is preferable to use the mode selection switch as opposed to the volume control when possible so we can check the volume control setting that the child is using. When we find that the child has the volume control turned very low - or very high, we must find out why, or refer to the audiologist or hearing aid dealer who fit the hearing aid to find out why.

1.2 Gently rotate the helix portion (See Figure 2) of the ear mold slightly posteriorly to free the top portion of the ear mold. When the helix portion of the ear mold is free of the helix, tip it slightly outward away from the head then rotate it anteriorly and simultaneously pull away from the head. The ear mold should slip out of the canal smoothly. Sometimes it is necessary to use a finger to push against the inner portion of the auricle to "pop" the ear mold out. Be very careful not to try to "dig" the mold out - especially if you have lethal length fingernails.

2.0 Visual inspection:

2.1 Inspect the ear mold for ear wax in sound or vent channels, and/or cracks or rough edges. If the vent or sound channel is occluded with ear wax, it may be removed with a small piece of wire or a small paper clip - in spite of wide spread advocacy, most pipe cleaners just don't fit through the channels. The ear mold may be cleaned with warm water and soap, however, it is very important to rinse and dry it thoroughly if this is done. Soap film left on the ear mold can irritate the skin of the auricle and enable the mold to loosen or slip out of the ear canal. Any water droplets not removed from the sound channel or tubing can result in a very distorted signal.

2.2 Inspect the hearing aid case for cracks or other signs of trauma. Although the ingenuity of parents and children in "patching up" damaged hearing aids with tape, wire, and unfortunately "super glue" at times, is admirable, damaged casings should be evaluated by the hearing aid dispenser to determine whether repair is necessary.

3.0 Battery check:

3.1 A voltmeter provides the most accurate means of checking a battery (or more accurately "cell"). The voltmeter should have a scale sufficient to readily see differences of 0.1 volt. Many voltmeters have scales that are too small or ranges too large to allow for the 1.0 to 1.5 volt measures necessary in checking a hearing aid battery. The voltage of the battery should be between 1.25 and 1.5 volts. If less than 1.25 volts the battery should be replaced. In connecting the leads from the voltmeter to the battery, be sure that the positive lead (marked + or red) is contacting the positive terminal of the battery (marked +) and that the negative lead (marked - or black) contacts the terminal opposite the positive terminal of the battery (often not marked).

3.2 When no voltmeter is available, we can get a rough idea of whether the battery is supplying enough power by performing a feedback test. When the hearing aid is turned on in the "microphone" (M) mode and the volume control is rotated to one half or more, a feedback squeal will be heard when a hand is cupped around the hearing aid and ear mold. If no feedback squeal results, the battery may be bad. Since an earmold with sound channel occluded with ear wax or a dysfunctioning or non functioning hearing aid may also result in a lack of feedback squeal, a new battery or one known to be functional should be inserted and the process repeated. If we now get a feedback squeal, it is safe to assume that the original battery was bad, and we can continue with the hearing aid check.

4.0 Listening Check:

4.1 Using a hearing aid stethoscope, insert the tip of the ear mold in the flange of the hearing aid stethoscope, and insert stethoscope ear pieces in your ears. Now turn the hearing aid on and insure that the it is in the "M" (microphone) position. Turn the volume control up and down while repeating some vocalization such as "testing, testing ..." listening for clarity of signal. Lightly tap the hearing aid and listen for any intermittencies that might indicate a short in the instrument. If any obvious distortion, static, or intermittent "cut outs" are detected the hearing aid should be checked by the audiologist or hearing aid dealer who fit it.

4.2 Several writers have suggested that persons performing a hearing aid check have their own ear mold for use in the listening check. It is a very good idea for each person involved in performing hearing aid checks to have their own custom ear mold, but only so they can learn to insert and remove the ear mold and develop a feel for how much pressure they can apply in inserting and removing the mold without causing pain. Using a custom ear mold in performing the listening check is awkward and time consuming. The child's ear mold and tubing must be removed and that belonging to the person performing the check attached. This done, the check is the same as that described above using a hearing aid stethoscope. In addition to being much more time consuming than using a stethoscope, a personal ear mold cannot be used in checking all in-the-ear, or body type hearing aids without special adaptations.

5.0 When feedback is a problem:

Recall that feedback is often caused by amplified sound escaping from the external canal and getting to the microphone thereby being reamplified over and over again. This drives the hearing aid to vibrate vigorously at its resonant frequency, producing the loud squeal known as feedback. When this occurs the following steps should enable you to determine the general location of the problem to correct it or make an appropriate referral. The feedback check should be accompanied by all of the hearing aid check procedures outlined above.

5.1 The first step after noting a feedback problem is to check to determine whether or not the ear mold is properly in place. The helix portion should be tucked under the helix and the concha portion seated. Often, particularly with young children or those not experienced in inserting an ear mold, inserting it properly, and spending a few minutes instructing the child in how to insert it will solve the problem.

5.2 If improper insertion of the ear mold is ruled out, remove the hearing aid (see section 1.0), firmly cover the sound channel with your thumb and any vent with your index finger, and turn the mode selector to the "M" position and the volume control to full on. Now cup your free hand around the hearing aid assembly and listen for feedback. If no feedback occurs in this condition, the problem is with the ear mold fit, use of too high a volume control setting, or the venting. The child will most likely need a new ear mold and should be seen by someone trained in making impressions for an ear mold remake.

5.3 If feedback does occur in the condition described in 5.2, remove the tubing from the ear hook, place your thumb firmly over the open end of the ear hook and with the mode reflector in "M" position, turn the volume control to full on and listen for feedback. If no feedback occurs in this condition, the problem is most likely a crack in the tubing or leakage around the tubing in the ear mold. The ear mold in this case will need to be retubed, which is a very simple and inexpensive procedure but requires the attention of someone trained to do it who has access to new tubing.

5.4 If feedback does occur in the condition described in 5.3, you may remove the ear hook (most unscrew, but others detach in different manners - don't force it!), place your thumb firmly over the opening where the ear hook is attached and with the mode selector in "M" position turn the volume control to full on and listen for feedback. If no feedback occurs in this condition, the problem should be in the ear hook, most likely a crack or hole in it. A new ear hook should eliminate the problem in this case and can be supplied by most audiologists or hearing aid dispensers.

5.5 If feedback is present in the condition described in 5.4, the problem is most likely internal. In this case the hearing aid will probably have to be sent to the manufacturer for repair. The audiologist or hearing aid dispenser handling the repairs should be able to supply a loaner hearing aid for use during the repair period.

Persons trained to correct the problems described above will usually be audiologists or hearing aid dealers. When these services are not readily available, some speech-language pathologists and a few parents of hearing impaired children are able to handle these problems. It is a good idea to determine what resource people are available in your area anytime you have or anticipate having a hearing impaired child in your classroom.

The preceding steps are used with behind the ear or in the ear type hearing aids. When checking a body type hearing aid, the listening check is slightly different. In order to perform the feedback test, the receiver of the hearing aid must be held close to the microphone rather than cupping hands around the instrument as we do with behind the ear types. In addition to turning the volume control up and down and tapping the instrument, we should gently move and bend the cord while listening to detect interruptions in the signal indicating a break in the cord. If these are noted, the cord should be replaced--cords should be the correct length, they came in a variety of lengths, if too long they may be tied in knots or pinned, which often results in breaks, if too short the ear mold may be jerked out of the ear every time the child turns his head! One more point regarding body type hearing aids, it is important to carefully check the microphone during the visual check, to detect any food or dirt that may interfere with sound passage. This is particularly important when the microphone is located on the top portion of the instrument. It is also a good idea to check for clothing rub noises when the aid is worn under clothing. To do this, remove the earmold-receiver combination from the ear and listen to the output without removing the hearing aid body from its pocket, or harness, or whatever, while the child moves normally -- but not too quickly or too far!

General Considerations:

The optimal time to check the hearing aid is just before or after lunch. Coupling the check to some routine event minimizes the chance of forgetting to do it. Using lunch time as the "cue" results in measurement towards the middle of the day. This is important, since hearing aid batteries are constructed to lose voltage very quickly once they reach fairly low voltages, so if a parent checks the hearing aid in the morning, then the teacher checks it just before school, each finding it o.k., it could be dead by noon, depriving the child of amplification for half the day. Hearing aid batteries have another peculiarity in that one may be just about dead at bed time, then when rested over night it can recover to a full charge, but it deteriorates very rapidly during use. This may result in a check first thing in the morning that shows all to be fine, with a dead battery by late morning or early afternoon. It is a good idea to obtain an extra battery for hearing aids from the parent, then if it is not needed over a month or so, rotate it i.e. take the battery out of the child's aid for a spare and use the original spare - this prevents wasting the battery, since they will deteriorate over time even if not used.

One last general comment -- it is real helpful to observe the hearing impaired child on the playground and in the classroom, noting how the hearing aid fits. We have all seen children with their hearing aid flopping around on the side of the head, held only by the ear mold. The tubing should be cut to a length that allows the ear hook to rest on the junction of the auricle with the side of the head. If it is too short, it will constantly loosen the ear mold resulting in feedback squeal. If too long, the hearing aid will not stay behind the ear and normal movement will result in it's swinging around bouncing from one point to another, often dislodging the ear mold and joining the host of its brethren forever lost on playgrounds, ground into the earth by thousands of small feet.

I hope that the preceding has been of some help in familiarizing you with the basics of hearing aids. The hearing aid check procedure may seem somewhat overwhelming at first, but after a few applications it should look a lot easier. As is so often the case in rural education, the hearing aid check is often a case of "if you don't do it - it won't get done" for the classroom teacher. I hope that the information presented here will help in complying with PL 94-142 and more importantly, in meeting the needs of hearing impaired students in our rural schools.

Recommended Readings:

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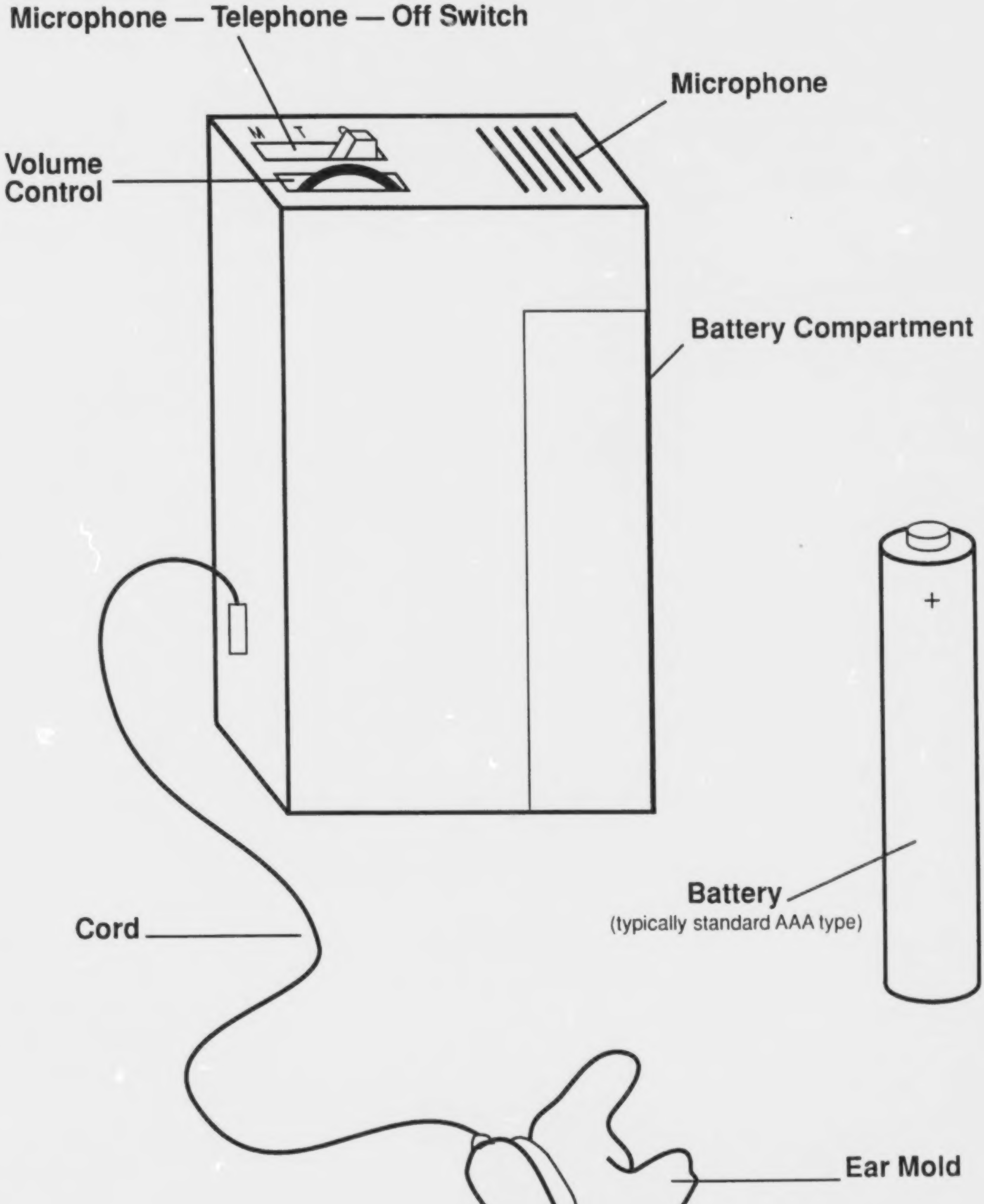
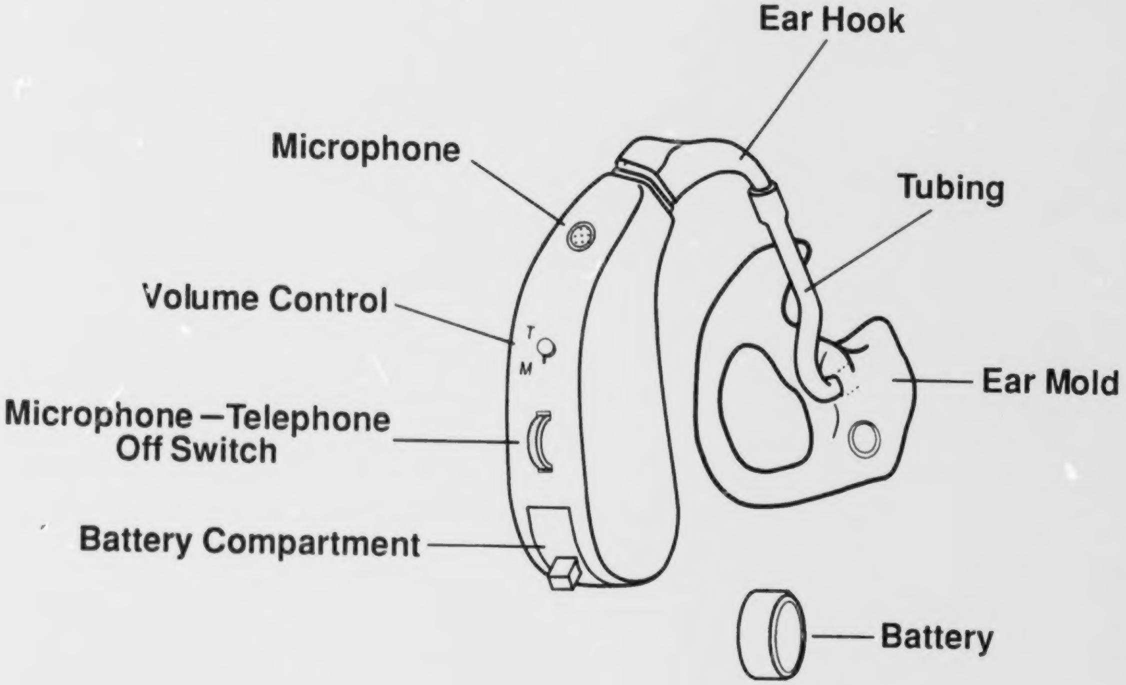
Schow, Ronald L. and Nerbonne, Michael A. (eds.). Introduction to Aural Rehabilitation. University Park Press, Baltimore, 1980 or more recent edition.

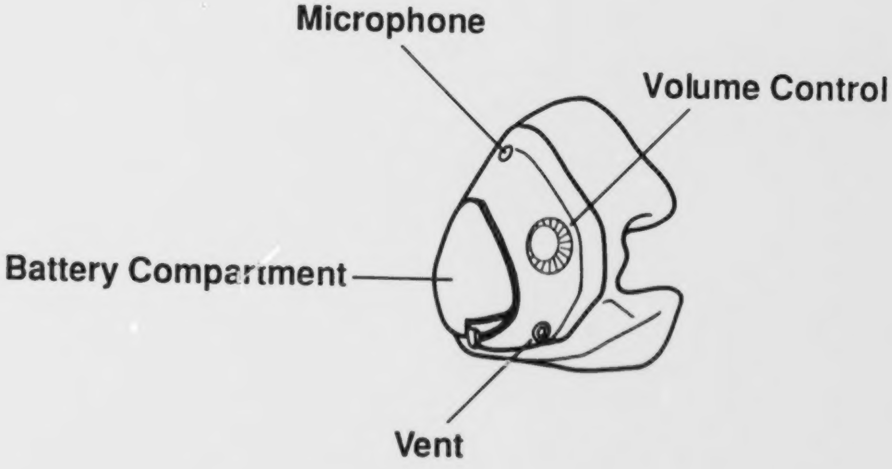
Body Type Hearing Aid


Microphone — Telephone — Off Switch
Microphone
M
T
Volume Control
Battery Compartment
+
Battery
(typically standard AAA type)
Cord
Ear Mold
Receiver

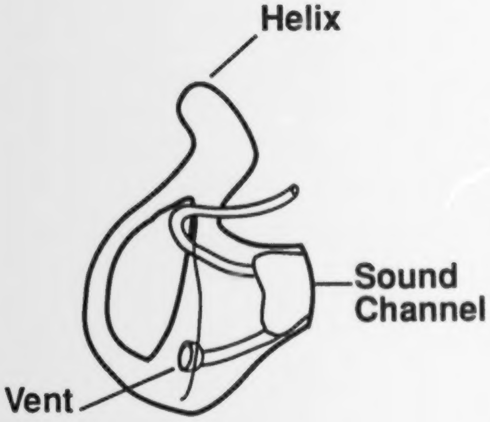
Behind the Ear Type Hearing Aid


Ear Hook
Microphone
Tubing
Volume Control
T
M
Ear Mold
Microphone —Telephone Off Switch
Battery Compartment
Battery

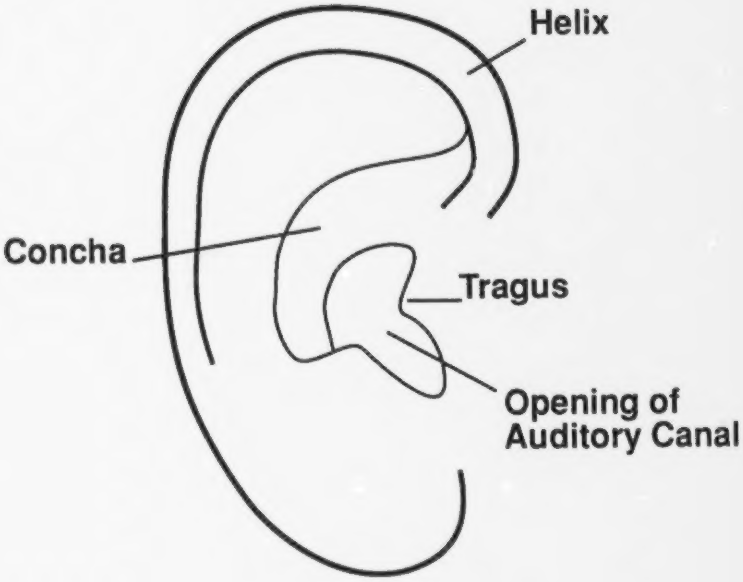
In the Ear Type Hearing Aid


Microphone
Volume Control
Battery Compartment
Vent

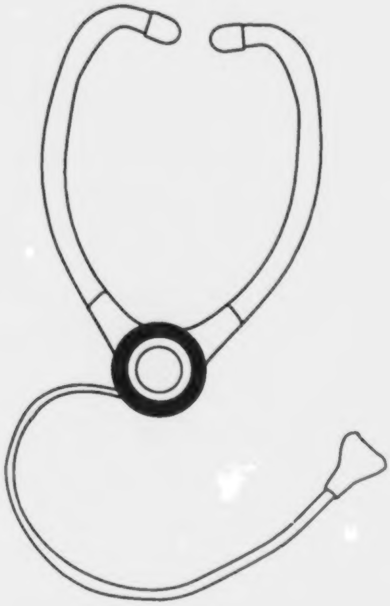
Ear Mold


Helix
Sound Channel
Vent

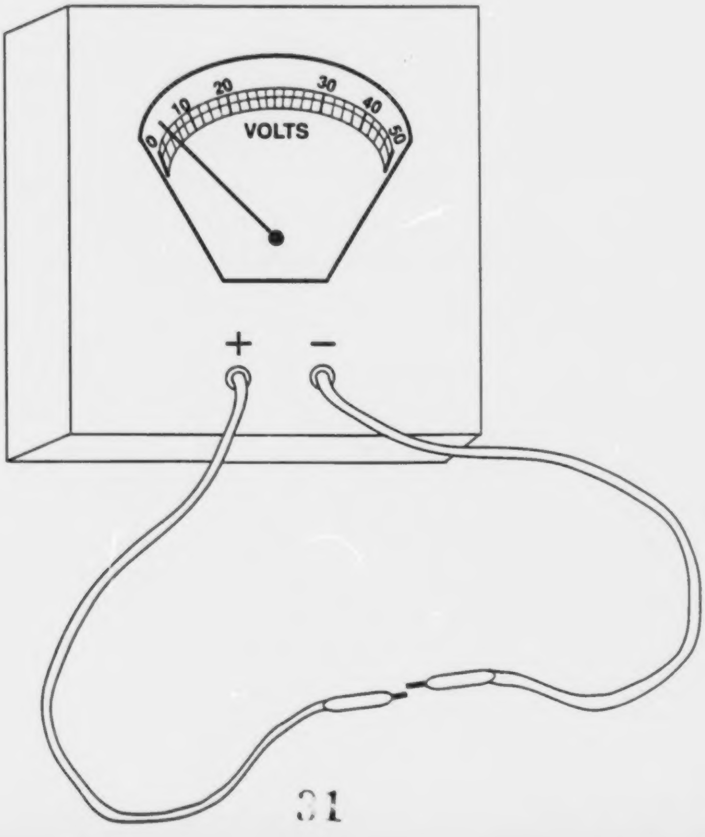
Auricle


Helix
Concha
Tragus
Opening of Auditory Canal

Hearing Aid Stethoscope



Voltmeter


0
10
20
30
40
50
VOLTS
+
–

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Andrea P. McDonnell
Co-Presenter: Joan Sebastian
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

Presenters:

Andrea McDonnell
Assistant Professor
Department of Special Education
Principal Investigator and Project Director
Utah Elementary Integration Project
University of Utah
Salt Lake City, Utah

Joan Sebastian
Principal Investigator and Project Director
Community-Referenced Teacher Education in Rural Areas
Department of Special Education
University of Utah
Salt Lake City, Utah

Ann Schrotz
Itinerant Teacher of Students with Severe Disabilities
South Sanpete School District
Gunnison, Utah

Julia Parslow
Itinerant Teacher of Students with Severe Disabilities and Resource Teacher
Sevier School District
Richfield, Utah

Camille McGuivey
Itinerant Teacher of Students with Severe Disabilities
Iron School District
Cedar City, Utah

Rural District Variations of a Comprehensive Model for Educating Elementary Students with Severe Disabilities in Their Neighborhood School

Purpose of Presentation:

The purpose of this presentation is to provide information on how small, rural school districts can effectively educate elementary students with severe and profound disabilities in their neighborhood elementary school. The presentation will describe three district-wide rural variations of the Utah Elementary Integration Model (UEI). UEI was originally funded as a federal model demonstration project in 1986, and has recently been awarded three years of additional funding for further model dissemination.

The target audience for this presentation is special education directors and teachers, elementary teachers and principals, parents of students with severe disabilities, and regional or state level personnel involved in teacher training or staff development activities in rural school districts.

Objectives of the Presentation:

The Utah Elementary Integration Model (UEI) was developed with the intent of allowing students with severe disabilities to attend their neighborhood elementary school, be included in a regular education homeroom class, and still receive intensive and specialized educational and related services. The model was designed to be flexible in staffing and administrative arrangements so it could meet the needs of a variety of rural, suburban, and urban districts, and a heterogeneous group of students. Key components of the model were incorporated across sites, and can be summarized in three interrelated areas:

I. Supported Integration

  a. neighborhood school placement

  b. part-time age appropriate regular class placement

  c. on-going teacming between regular and special education teachers

  d. increased integration of staff, students, and families over time

II. Functional Curriculum, Designed and Implemented by Teams

  a. functional, peer-referenced curriculum

  b. integration of goals across curricular areas and within natural contexts

  c. individualized adaptations and family involvement

  d. transdisciplinary teaming, including parents, regular and special education teachers, specialists

  e. team involvement in all stages of planning, implementing, and evaluating individualized educational interventions

III. Effective Instructional Planning, Delivery, and Management

  a. use of instructional strategies validated for application with learners with severe disabilities

  b. direct instruction of generalized responding

  c. individualized instructional analysis for every IEP goal

  d. IEP-based scheduling for individual students

e. data-based monitoring of instructional progress, including probing performance in natural contexts

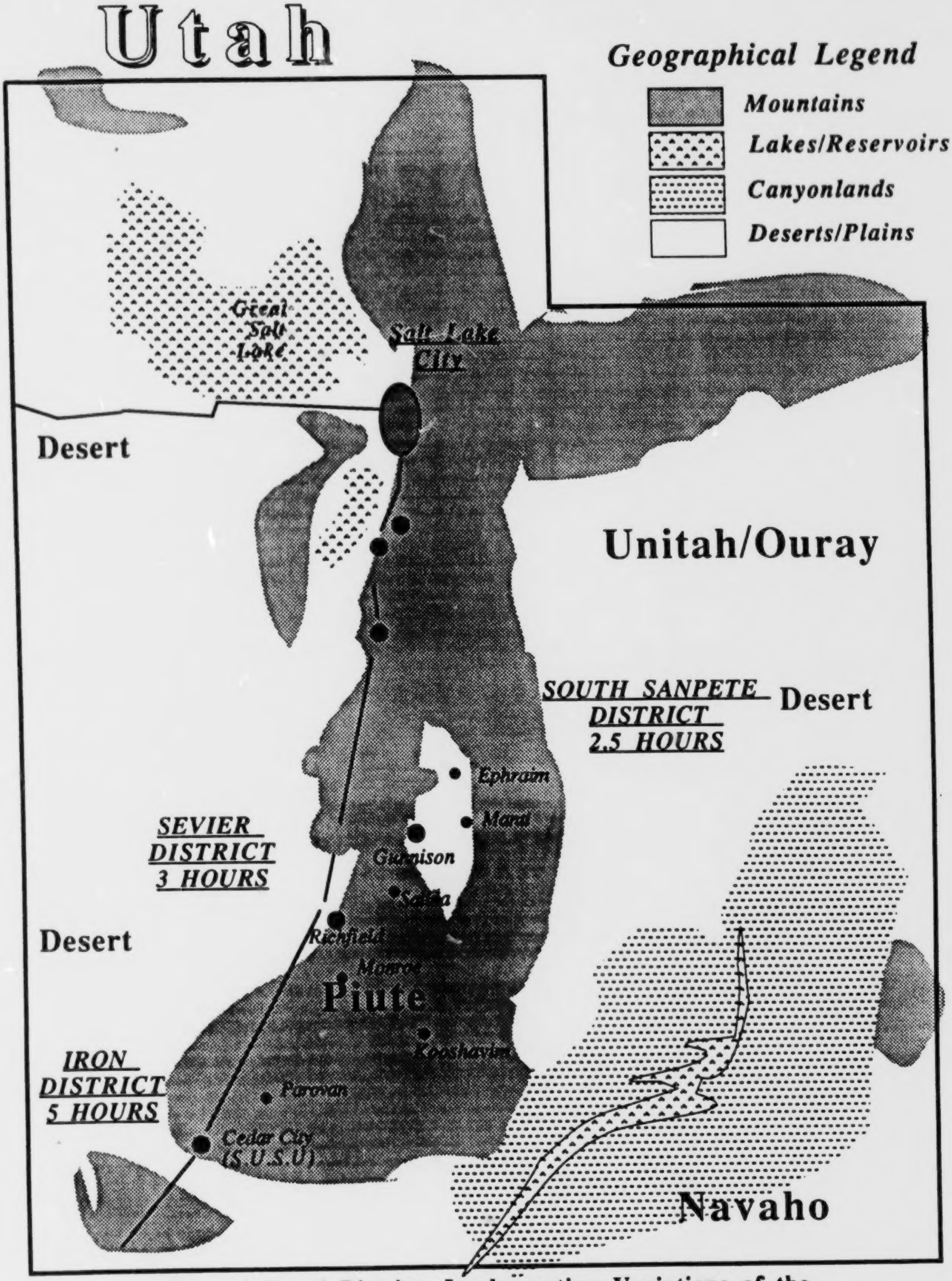
Presenters will share several types of information: a brief overview of (a) key components of the model, (b) specific strategies for integrating students into neighborhood schools and regular classes, including working with regular educators and typical students, (c) staffing and administrative variations that have been used in each of the three represented districts, and (d) ways that rural teacher preparation and staff development programs can support innovations in direct services to students in rural areas. Model implementation outcome data will be included as a part of the presentation. Outcome data includes (a) levels of student integration in school and after-school settings, (b) an analysis of pre-post test gains on standardized measures of adaptive behavior, (c) survey results for regular education teachers who worked with the students with severe disabilities, and (d) data from classroom observations and parent interviews.

Rural Focus:

Rural districts have been included in UEI model development and replication activities since the first year of project funding. Rural districts have provided unique opportunities and challenges for model implementation. One of the keys to successful model implementation has been appreciating what each district and group of communities had to offer to their students with severe disabilities, and assisting districts in adapting the model to facilitate effective integration and education of students in their home school. Because rural districts often have elementary schools with small numbers of students, they have often had very small numbers of students with severe handicaps living within their catchment areas. To assure successful neighborhood school placements this has necessitated examining ways to deliver appropriate amounts of support and specialized services in schools which have only one-three students with severe multiple handicaps. The represented districts (see map) have all dealt with this challenge successfully, being in their second to fourth year of model implementation. Significantly, they have each designed their own adaptation, based on the available special education personnel, as well as unique student, school, and community characteristics. An important supporting factor to the success of the rural models has been a rural teacher education program, and state and federal inservice training projects. Graduates of the rural special education teacher training program have played key roles in rural model implementation and replication, and have served as on-site facilitators for subsequent students enrolled in the rural teacher education program.

Practical Applications

Participants will receive copies of materials that describe the key model components, and provide information on integrating students with severe disabilities in regular education classes. Participants will also receive specific suggestions on regular-special education teacher teaming, and ways of adapting staffing and support patterns to facilitate successful neighborhood school placements in rural districts. For participants who want more detailed information on the UEI model, the rural teacher preparation program, or ways of dovetailing model development and personnel preparation projects, products lists and school and university contact persons will be available.


Utah
Geographical Legend
Mountains
Lakes/Reservoirs
Canyonlands
Deserts/Plains
Great Salt Lake
Salt Lake City
Desert
Unitah/Ouray
SOUTH SANPETE DISTRICT 2.5 HOURS
Desert
Ephraim
Manti
SEVIER DISTRICT 3 HOURS
Gunnison
Salina
Richfield
Desert
Monroe
Piute
Koosharem
IRON DISTRICT 5 HOURS
Parowan
Cedar City (S.U.S.U)
Navaho

Several Rural Districts Implementing Variations of the Utah Elementary Integration Model

RKO/1991

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Martha Pine
Co-Presenter: Susan Olesen
Sharon Cain
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

Martha Pine
Elementary Special Class Teacher
Irving Elementary
Creston, Iowa

Susan Olesen
Elementary and Junior High Resource
and Special Class Teacher
Greenfield Elementary and Junior High
Greenfield, Iowa

Sharon Cain
Elementary Resource Teacher
Crossroad Elementary
West Des Moines, Iowa

Teacher Consultant Model . . . . Trend of the Future

Fifteen Area Education Agencies (AEAs) were established in Iowa in 1974, to become active on July 1, 1975, to serve the needs of local Iowa school districts (LEAs) in the areas of media services, educational services, and special education. This paper will focus on the history and utilization of special education funding in Iowa and more specifically Green Valley Area Education Agency 14.

The main office is located in the southwestern part of the state in Creston, Iowa, population 8300, the largest town in AEA 14. There are satellite offices in Corning, Greenfield, Red Oak, Lamoni, and Osceola, Iowa. The area it serves is rural and largely agricultural, with some small industry. AEA 14 serves all of eight counties and parts of five others, including 22 public school districts and 1 parochial school district. AEA 14 is the most rural AEA in the state with a population of 3.2 children per square mile, compared with Iowa's most populous AEA having 22.6 children per square mile. Contained in AEA 14 are some of the least populous, poorest counties in Iowa and the United States.

The initial AEA special education funding was calculated on a per pupil amount based on the number of school age children living in an area, as well as a consideration of the amount of money spent for special education services in the LEAs prior to the establishment of the AEAs. The state then established a funding mechanism that generated monies for the LEAs and AEAs based on the number of students placed in special education and the restrictiveness of the placement. The AEAs were to serve as compliance and support service agencies to the LEAs.

AEA 14, compared to other AEAs, has historically lagged financially due to the sparse population and comparatively low special education funding prior to 1974. Consequently, before this school year (1990-91), it was the only AEA in the state to be without the services of school social workers and special education consultants, as well as some other specialists to whom adequate compensation could not be provided, even on a contractual basis. At one time AEA 14 had full time special education consultants, but when state wide budget cuts were initiated in 1979 those consultative positions were eliminated in favor of retaining direct service personnel. Consequently, every special education teacher in AEA 14 is responsible for curriculum development, teaching, academic and behavioral evaluation, collaboration with regular educators, parent communication, staffing organization and execution, and IEP development and implementation.

After attempts to resolve this long-standing financial inequity were made in concert with the Iowa Department of Education, the AEA 14 Director of Special Education, Harold Connolly, recognized that the only way to adjust this inequity was through legislative appropriation. He enlisted the support of area state legislators to write into the Iowa AEA funding formula a sparsity factor. In the 1989 legislative session, this formula (which would have provided AEA 14 with an additional $500,000) passed both houses of the Iowa Legislature, but was vetoed by the governor, Terry Branstad. In the 1990 session, after the governor had vetoed the entire education spending bill, which again contained the sparsity factor for AEA 14, a compromise was struck and the sparsity factor left in the bill, providing an extra $287,000 for AEA 14. The sparsity factor was not supported by the Iowa Department of Education, so it was of special political significance that the people of AEA 14 pulled together, relentlessly lobbied the legislators and the governor, and the needs of rural children in our area were recognized and AEA 14 is now able to provide a broader range of services.

Another interesting drama was played out in the Iowa Legislature last session as well when a plan was offered by the Iowa Department of Education to reorganize the AEAs. This proposal included the elimination of AEA 14. In the proposed plan, AEA 14 was to be merged with Heartland AEA 11, located near Des Moines and Loess Hills AEA 13, located in Council Bluffs. The Department contended the merger would allow our "service poor" area to have a full complement of services. Interestingly enough, neither AEA with which we were to be merged wanted us, wondering how they would be able to continue their own present level of service while providing services in our sparsely populated area as well. The people of AEA 14 were opposed to the merger, wishing to maintain their agency's particular rural personality and recognizing that lack of services related directly to funding, not unwillingness to utilize resources appropriately. The AEA merger proposal caused such a hue and cry that it was never brought to the floor of the Legislature.

Prior to the sparsity formula being initiated, Mr. Connolly had decided he would appoint a committee of experienced, master (by his definition) teachers from AEA 14 that he hoped might help fill the gap created by the absence of consultants. Though AEA 14 would still be without full time consultants, Mr. Connolly believed the teachers on the committee, as well as other teachers and professionals in the area, could be utilized as teacher consultants, who would provide on a limited basis, the kinds of services he would expect a consultant to provide. The teachers asked to participate, except for one, taught in multicategorical resource or special class with integration models, his choices reflecting the majority of instructional models in AEA 14. He spoke to the building administrators, as well as the superintendents, of the teachers he wished to involve in the project. He explained his idea and asked if he might buy some of the teachers' time from the districts where they were employed. The AEA would pay for the substitutes hired and any other expenses incurred when the teachers were asked to be gone for AEA related projects. Those administrators believed it to be a useful and unique idea and gave the go ahead for the teachers to be involved. He offered the seven teachers a $500 stipend to sit on this committee the first year and every teacher offered a seat accepted. In October of 1989, the newly formed Special Education Teacher Advisory Committee met for the first time.

By the time the Legislature and Governor provided the sparsity funding, the Committee was in full swing. At the same time the Bureau of Special Education in Iowa was in the second year of an initiative called the Renewed Service Delivery System, which focused on prereferral activity before special education placement and encouraged major cutbacks in pullout programs. Additionally it was/is an effort to deal with the ever increasing at-risk population in Iowa schools. Mr. Connolly believed the people who should judge the efficacy of the system were the direct service people who would be asked to initiate it, teachers. Consequently, the majority of the Committee's time was spent that first year visiting trial sites around the state, talking with teachers who were participating in RSDS, and attending training sessions sponsored by the Bureau of Special Education in Iowa that were pertinent to the RSDS Initiative. This work continued into the summer.

Once the AEA received the sparsity funding, Mr. Connolly began his search for 3 full time consultants. However, he found his ability to hire was hampered by his belief, after the year with the seven teachers, that the best consultants were teachers themselves. He tried to hire the teachers from the committee, but they all preferred to stay in the classroom. He proposed to the Green Valley Board of Directors that the seven teachers on the committee be offered contracts of $5000 from which they could buy down at the rate of $14 per hour for the work they did outside of the school day in their LEAs and that their time could continue to be purchased from the LEAs to participate in trainings, travel, and to offer inservices. The board believed his plan to be an excellent utilization of resources. Six of the seven teachers who participated in the project the first year agreed to continue into the second year in the expanded program. It is presently the only "teacher as consultant" model in the state of Iowa.

This team presently provides staff development programs for both regular and special educators in AEA 14, assistance at difficult staffings, and consultation in curricular methods and materials. These services are offered to local districts at their convenience and are designed to conform with LEA goals and needs.

We believe the void occurring because of no full time consultants is being filled. We believe our services are openly received because we are not just consultants, but teachers who must implement that which we advocate. We, due to first hand knowledge, understand the roadblocks caused by scheduling, confusion, and other obstacles encountered in real life in any school building. Also we have noted teachers' willingness to share their special expertises with us and then others because they feel empowered by our empowerment. This recognition of talent, we believe, increases the collegiality and communication of teachers throughout the AEA and increases the availability of resources. Our ultimate goal is to provide the best direct service possible for all special education students in AEA 14 through training and collaboration with the teachers who must provide that service, whether they be regular educators or special educators.

We find that support for our model exists in research being done on change. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development finds that lasting learning for teachers is most likely to occur within a supportive environment that encourages practice, idea sharing among teachers, and peer observation. Additionally, change research collected by the Iowa Department of Education tells us that persons tend to change when they see others changing, particularly when the change direction is supported by valued persons, in this case fellow teachers. People tend to change to the degree they trust the motives of the person or persons attempting to induce change. Teachers tend to change to the degree that they see the change has been successful, especially if they are able to gather data for themselves.

In the fall of 1990, a needs assessment survey was sent to all certified staff in AEA 14. Major areas of interest and need were identified and our educational modules were developed around those identified areas. We offer a range of professional services with the following programs emphasized: Progress Monitoring, Teacher Assistance Teams, IEP Writing, Curriculum Adaptations, Collaboration (Suzanne Robinson's model from Kansas University), Cooperative Learning, Behavior Management, Problem Solving Approach (PSA), and Compliance Issues. Several of the modules have been offered as classes for recertification and/or college credit. We are currently involved in training in the Kansas Learning Strategies. Our first major initiative as a total committee was to invite teams, an elementary level and a secondary level team from each of the districts in the area, to an all day in-service for an overview of the available staff development modules. Prior to that several districts had invited individual members to present in-service in areas in which they had a need.

Each of the committee members brought to the committee selected areas of interest and specialization. Three of our members have recently, or are currently, serving on state level committees. Martha Pine currently serves as the teacher representative on the Iowa Department of Education's Behavior Disabilities Steering Committee, as well as a Department of Education committee formulating policy and procedure for the suspension and expulsion of handicapped students. Susan Olesen is serving on an Iowa State Education Association committee which is reviewing the implementation and effectiveness of the Renewed Service Delivery System, the new initiative in Iowa mentioned earlier in this paper. Sharon Cain served for four years as the teacher representative on the Iowa Department of Education Special Education Advisory Committee.

We, as teachers, welcome the opportunity provided to us by AEA 14 to demonstrate that the people who are best equipped to evaluate, communicate, and facilitate change are those who must ultimately effect the change in their classrooms with children every day. The recognition of our talents and abilities is serving to empower other teachers in our area to become confident of their own abilities to become better at what they already do quite well – teach.

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Mary C. Jensen
Co-Presenter: Victoria L.Bernhardt
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

Mary Cihak Jensen
Victoria L. Bernhardt
Calif. State Univ., Chico
Department of Education
Chico, Calif. 95929-0222

RECRUITING AND SUPPORTING SPECIAL EDUCATION TRAINEES FOR RURAL, ISOLATED COMMUNITIES

At last count, the nation lacked 30,000 special education teachers while universities reported a nearly thirty percent decrease in the number of special education degrees granted between 1984 and 1988 (National Association of State Directors of Special Education [NASDSE], 1990). New special education teachers appeared to leave the profession at an even higher rate than did general education teachers; that is, even more than fifty percent left in the first five years of teaching (NASDSE, 1990). The crisis varies in relation to geographical regions, with urban and rural, especially isolated rural areas, reporting the greatest needs. The following project is designed to address the dual need in special education: to find and to keep the best of teachers.

RURAL SETTING

California State University, Chico (CSU, Chico) is the sole institution offering specialist teacher education within a 33,000 square mile region of northeastern California. This region includes twelve rural counties. Distances from the small schools to the campus often exceed 100 miles (one-way). For approximately four months of the year, inclement weather precludes the possibility for many of commuting to campus. Isolated from other areas and from the University itself, these rural schools face increasing numbers of students with disabilities and yet persistent shortages of qualified special education personnel.

The University, in collaboration with school districts in its service area, has designed a training program that recruits, prepares and supports new special education teachers. By significantly reducing this personnel shortage and by strengthening existing district efforts, the program improves the quality of education received by exceptional students in its service area.

COLLABORATION IN RECRUITMENT

This two-year, on-the-job training program begins with the recruitment of qualified candidates as special educators in their home communities. Local school administrators and University personnel offer informational meetings, brochures and newsletters designed to attract academically and professionally talented individuals to the special education profession. Recruitment materials emphasize that the program seeks "the best," specifying an above-average academic and professional record as prerequisites.

Preference is given to current residents of the region since these individuals are most likely to remain in their area and teaching position. Candidates are recruited from four subgroups:

(1) Talented regular class teachers who desire to improve their skills in teaching special populations;

(2) Students in the final phase of their basic elementary or secondary teaching credential program who have excelled within that training program and who demonstrate particular competence in teaching mainstreamed exceptional children;

(3) Re-entry educators who seek updated training prior to assuming teaching positions;

(4) Current part-time substitute teachers who plan to assume full-time teaching positions and who, in substitute assignments, demonstrate unusual potential for successfully teaching exceptional students.

Selection of trainees is also collaborative: both the district and the University must agree on candidates. Recruits from category (1), regular class teachers, are ordinarily preferred in the selection process since they bring valuable experience to the specialist's emerging role as consultant.

STRUCTURED, ACCESSIBLE TRAINING

Partially funded by a U.S. Department of Education personnel training grant for special educators, the project offers structured, accessible training to these residents of rural and isolated communities. Twenty candidates receive a modest stipend intended to defray the expenses of commuting, fees and texts. Training is available at regional sites, through interactive instructional television, and in an intensive campus summer session. Employing school districts offer trainees ten days of release time in order to attend monthly follow-up sessions. Early training emphasizes teaching strategies needed to address pupil differences in learning.

A three-day preservice (or "Boot Camp") orients interns to their new roles and responsibilities prior to the first school year. This experience also serves to form the social support that will strengthen trainees during the school year ahead. By increasing communication between their rural, isolated settings, trainees learn early the benefit of a supportive professional cadre.

SUPPORT SYSTEMS

In addition to formal training, a "safety net" or support network is built around each trainee. District and university staffs cooperate to provide joint supervision throughout the two-year period, culminating in the joint recommendation for credentialing. In addition, a local, fully credentialed special education teacher is selected to offer peer support to each trainee. These peer coaches receive University-sponsored training in supportive communications, teaching effectiveness, coaching and video analysis. It is expected that a side benefit of the program will be increased job satisfaction and retention on the part of both trainees and mentor teachers.

PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

The CSU, Chico Special Education Intern Program provides two years of on-the-job training leading to certification to teach in California Special Education classrooms. Additionally, CSU, Chico offers a regular credential program in Special Education that students can take at their own pace, but typically complete in five years. In the past, school districts have hired teachers on emergency credentials and special waivers from the State Department of Education to fill the shortage of special education teachers in the Northstate. One of the requirements of the emergency credential and special waiver is that the recipients enroll in coursework at the University. In November, 1990, a survey was administered to 18 of this year's interns and 13 students from the regular special education teaching program (referred to here as the control group) to determine if there are differences in the populations served through each of these routes.

Backgrounds

On an average, the 18 interns have five years of experience in regular education classrooms (range = 0 to 20), while the control group teachers have three and one-half years of experience in regular education classrooms (range = 0 to 12). Interns are about 10 years older than the control group with an average age of 42.

Reasons for entering the profession

In depicting their reasons for choosing to become special education teachers, respondents were presented with a list of possible reasons and asked to check all of the reasons that were applicable to their individual decisions. A summary of their responses are shown below.

Interns	Decision Factors	Control Group
94%	Opportunity to help young people w/disabilities	77%
89%	Personally satisfying job	92%
83%	Opportunity to see growth in individual students	85%
72%	Like to make a difference in children's lives	85%
56%	Like to learn new things	62%
39%	Impressed with special ed teachers at my school	31%
28%	Wanted to stay in the area	38%
28%	Have a learning disabled child & became interested	0%
28%	Needed a new challenge	31%
28%	Small class size was an attraction	23%
22%	Opportunity to work in a consulting role	46%
22%	Needed a change	15%
22%	Convenient schedule for being a parent	31%
22%	Jobs not available in regular education	23%
17%	Comparatively good salary	31%
17%	Saw special education as a career ladder	15%
11%	Tuition stipend offered made it attractive	N/A
5%	Summers off	23%
5%	Sibling is learning disabled	.08%
0%	At least one parent was a special education teacher	.08%

The greatest differences between the two groups appear in the following categories. 28% of the Interns reported having a learning disabled child and stated that this experience served as important motivator for them in pursuing a career in special education while none of the control group was so affected (28% difference). 22% of the Interns cited their desire to work in a consulting capacity as a decision motivator while 46% (24% difference) of the control group cited the opportunity to work in a consulting capacity as significant in arriving at their career decisions. 94% of the Interns reported that the opportunity to help young people with disabilities was a significant factor in their career decision. 77% (17% difference) of the control group considered the opportunity to help young people with disabilities in their career choice. 5% of the Interns reported valuing summer vacation periods sufficiently to influence their career choices, while this was so for 23% of the control group (17% difference). Salary considerations were less frequently mentioned by Interns (17%) than by control group students (31%) as an important motivator in their choice of a special education career (14% difference). While the opportunity to make a difference in children's lives was an important factor or both groups, it was less significant to Interns (72%) than to control group students (92%). This factor has been found to be a major motivator for all teachers regardless of specialization. Finally the desire to remain within the geographic area was a less important motivator for those in the Intern Program (28%) than to on-campus students (38%--10% difference).

Intern Program Incentives

Interns were ask how much the stipend, release time, the opportunity to work on a Masters Degree, and the support to be provided in the internship program, were incentives for entering the special education profession. They were also asked to indicate if there were other incentives for entering the internship program, and how much of an incentive this was to them. Thirteen out of the fifteen specifying an incentive indicated that they have always wanted to work with this special population, however, the opportunities were limited because of geography and scheduling. The results, shown below, indicate that the strongest incentive for the interns to enter the field of special education is their desire to work with the special education population, followed by the support provided in the program, the opportunity to work on a masters, the release time provided, and lastly, the stipend.

	Not at all							A Great Deal	
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	AVE
Stipend	5		1	1	4	2	4	1	3.4
Release Time	4		1	3	2	3	1	4	3.8
Masters	3	1	1	1	4	2	2	4	4.0
Support		1	2		2	6	3	4	4.9
Other: To work with the population			1		1	2	4	5	5.8

Control Group Reflections

When asked what would facilitate their teaching in special education right now (November), almost every teacher in the control group responded that peer coaching, or some type of structured assistance, would be invaluable--someone with whom to communicate, to build the spirit of cooperation, and to avoid reinventing the wheel. Although none of the control teachers seemed to have a structured support system, 58% of them said they seek assistance 75% to 100% of the time when they need it.

Summary

Overall, the preliminary findings indicate that strong candidates with many years of experience have been recruited for the internship program. The strong support structure is one of the major incentives to being involved in the program, a component that students in the regular, non-intern program feel is sorely missing in their training program.

A longitudinal study is in process to follow these interns as well as candidates in the regular special education program to assess program effectiveness, and product differences.

ACRES PRESENTATION:
Exemplary Program Competition
Award Winner
Presenter: Don Davison
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 10:30am-12:00pm

Don Davison

AG IN THE CLASSROOM

The following material describes a program that integrated the study of agriculture with basic academics. With the support of the community, this teacher has found a unique vehicle to motivate his learning handicapped students. And because of this unique program in the Resource Specialist classroom, the Resource Specialist Mr. Don Davison, was selected Resource Specialist of The Year in California, for 1990. Also, the California Foundation For Ag In The Classroom, made their selection of Grad Of The Year (1989), for the Summer Agricultural Institute to Don Davison. And the Governor of California sent Mr. Davison a letter of Commendation for his work as a teacher.

As a Resource Specialist, I strive to provide programs that will motivate my junior high students as well as teach basic concepts. My students, however, bring years of academic failure and very low self-esteem. Traditional methods and materials are unlikely to provide the spark they need to learn.

Even though Upper Lake Junior High is located in an agricultural area, few students have farm backgrounds. Many have moved to less populated areas and know little about America's Agricultural heritage. The word culture, comes from the word agriculture. They have limited understanding of either the agriculture or the role of the farmer in the United States economy. The importance of agriculture in education cannot be overemphasized. The following is the position of the National Academy of Sciences, as reported in September, 1983.

> "Beginning in Kindergarten and continuing through twelth grade, all students should receive some systematic instruction about agriculture. Much of this instruction could be incorporated into existing courses rather than taught in separate course...An agriculturally literate person's understanding of the food and fiber system includes its history and current economic, social and environmental significance to all Americans... The Ag In The Classroom program and other efforts have produced useful materials and approaches at the elementary and high school levels that could be used as models to improve education about contemporary agriculture."

The Ag In The Classroom Program appeared to provide just what my students needed. I began with my most challenging class, matching the students' particular interests with materials. For example, the more mechanically inclined focused on construction; animal fanciers learned about animal care and feeding of livestock. Our computer hackers found their niche with the California Foundation for Agriculture's Farm and Food Bytes, software integrates all areas of curriculum. Even our game players found their vehicle in the Farming Game and the Great American Farm.

Bringing in the Community

Person to person networking proved to be an invaluable aspect of Ag In The Classroom. We participated in the Adopt a Classroom Program, whereby farmers throughout our state sent ideas, videos and pictures, and materials to our classroom. We would learn all about a particular farm or ranch. This farmer or rancher would keep in touch with our students by mail or visiting the classroom. Guest speakers from 4-H, FFA and environmental organizations shared their expertise. Food producers and processors, local and migrant workers came to share their prospective. From lectures and demonstrations and from our field trips, we learned to prune trees, operate equipment, process foods and care for animals.

The community enthusiastically endorsed our program. The local newspaper is encouraging us by allowing one student a month to be a writer and photographer. This budding journalist writes a feature describing our monthly events, visitors and projects. A high school student offers his services as a photography tutor.

Vocational Education

Ag In The Classroom is a hands-on vocational education program. Students fill out applications and participating in moch interviews with prospective employers. They evaluate prospective employment situations to determine what skills are needed. In addition, local farmers teach many skills necessary to produce crops, use and maintain equipment and raise livestock.

Vocational Education Day (County-wide)

Working with the local Farm Bureau, County Fair Board of Directors, 4-H, FFA and many other agricultural agencys, (county, state and federal,) and the County Superintendent of Schools, we are incorporating the county-wide Voc Ed Fair with Ag In The Classroom Day. All the elementary, junior high and high schools in our county will have the opportunity to see Ag In The Classroom projects, materials, innovative curriculum and students working together.

The 4-H and FFA will be able to display and tell about their projects as well. This will be a combination of many different organizations and institutions working together. From youngsters, and staff and community support, are planning, organizing and structuring this event.

Conclusion

Ag In The Classroom can benefit both regular and special education students. Teachers may modify the program to fit particular interests and needs. And high risk students, involved in a highly motivating experience are far more likely to stay in school.

Background Information on Ag In The Classroom

The background information on Ag In The Classroom is from their Fact Sheet (U.S.D.A..) "..The goal of Ag In The Classroom is to help students acquire enough knowledge to function effectively as agriculturally literate citizens supportive of wise agricultural policies and programs. Ag In The Classroom aims at getting educators to teach more about the source of our food and fiber and the role agriculture in the total economy and society. Emphasis is placed on incorporating the following basic concepts into a wide variety of subjects that are already being taught in the schools.

1. Agriculture and history. Agriculture issues or events as major influences in human history, from making possible the first settled societies, to current world food issues.
2. The geography of agriculture. What grows where and why.
3. Agriculture science and technology. How science and technology have changed American agriculture in the last 100 years.
4. The economics of agriculture. How agriculture sector works and the interrelationship of U.S. agriculture with the rest of the economy. Effects of supple and demand, how prices are determined, changing interactions

of the factors of production, farming as a buisness, agribuisness.

5. Agriculture and the World. World food production and its distribution and its relationship to American agriculture.
6. Careers. The abundant opportunities for challenging and rewarding careers in agriculture and related industries.
7. Agriculture and Public policy. Land use conservation, biotechnology, environmental quality, world food supplies and other issues.

For more information, please contact California Foundation for Ag In The Classroom, 1601 Exposition Blvd., Sacramento, CA 95815 or the United States Department of Agriculture, Office of the Secretary, Room 234 Washington, D.C.

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Paul S. Higbee
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

Paul S. Higbee
Black Hills Special Services Cooperative
208 E. Colorado Boulevard
Spearfish, SD 57783

How Rural Schools Can Build Alliances for At-Risk Youth

This article examines what three rural South Dakota schools are doing to reach youth-at-risk. In all three, schools are taking lead roles in forming community alliances to reach these young people.

Although the towns examined here are all in South Dakota, they represent vastly different rural lifestyles. One is a Sioux reservation community, another a farm town, and the third a ranch and mining town. The specific methods behind what they are doing for at-risk youth are of less importance than the fact that those methods evolved from studying local needs and unique resources. I do not present the methods as models. What I would like to present is the necessity for community self-study as a first step in reaching youth-at-risk, followed by alliance building.

Cheyenne River Reservation - This is an area the size of Connecticut where just 7,000 people live . . . the Lakota Sioux or Miniconjue. The landscape is a treeless prairie broken here and there by high buttes. The people, when they distinguish between themselves and whites, usually call themselves Indians, not Native Americans. They will talk about their obvious poverty but are quick to add that demographics don't tell the whole story. They speak of a growing sense of community and a need to address long-standing problems their own way.

Unemployment on the reservation as a whole runs 70 to 85 percent but is worse on the west side, probably 95 percent. The west side is served by Takini School ("takini" means "survivor" in Lakota), with 250 students K - 12.

"The school is really the only employer," says superintendent Ken Englehardt. That puts his staff in a peculiar position for teachers. They are the "haves," their neighbors the "have nots". Teachers must be careful how they address problems so parents won't think them elitist.

A long hall runs east to west through Takini School. Primary students start at the east end and will, over the years, move toward high school rooms on the west end. But most don't make it to the end. If today's eighth graders follow established patterns, just 20 percent will be here in four years to get a diploma.

Teachers find it hard to talk about the value of a diploma in an environment where most graduates, like drop-outs, are unemployed. Steve Petz teaches a Careers Class but most of his students "don't see parents getting up and going to work. It's not something within their experience." Petz is working to schedule field trips to see various businesses and occupations. That means driving hundreds of miles.

He thinks some economic development here would retain and bring back graduates who could improve the quality of life. But it would have to be businesses with local roots, so the school has begun teaching entrepreneurship. The reservation has been burned before by outside business people whose promises have not translated to dollars in the local economy.

But the reservation's number one problem hampers economic development, and dashes many hopes. The tribal government estimates 95 percent of reservation residents are directly or indirectly affected by alcohol and other drug abuse. Takini teachers say that's a conservative estimate. One theory holds that alcohol was a weapon the federal government used in hopes of destroying these people.

Whatever the history, the effects on Takini children are brutal. Of 311 substantiated child abuse and neglect cases across the reservation last year, more than 90 percent were triggered by alcohol. Everyone knows the 311 figure represents a tiny fraction of actual cases. Teachers speak of families shattered by alcohol, of molestation in homes where ten or more people share a bedroom, of seven-year-olds who are responsible for younger sibblings days at a time.

The school building is completely drug and alcohol free. There's not even a smoking area for teachers. Students, says superintendent Englehardt, must see the school as "a safe environment, free of pressures to drink or take drugs, staffed by people who will help however they can."

LaVonne Dupris, the school's full-time alcohol and drug counselor, works in all classrooms. She's using the school building for Alateen meetings. She's inviting the community to programs on "prevention and intervention."

The school recently opened a special coping room. Students devastated by weekend drinking in their homes come to school Monday tired, hungry, and emotionally spent. By Thursday they may be bracing themselves for the coming weekend. The room's staff helps students recover and prepare. Much of what students need to talk about are the issues of life and death like, "What should I do if there's a fire and all the adults are too drunk to help?"

More and more, the school is turning to tribal elders and other local leaders for ideas like the coping room, rather than relying on outsiders.

Gene Thin Elk, a healer and writer, spoke recently to Takini teachers. He believes Native Americans here are dealing with three cultures: Native American, white, and the culture of alcoholism . . . "a culture in itself, a whole way of life, a whole belief system, a whole value system."

Thin Elk says the alcoholic culture will disappear only when replaced by another powerful set of values. He advocates teaching young people traditional Lakota ways. A society committed to true Lakota beliefs would see alcohol and drug abuse as defiling the sacredness of all living things, and the Earth Mother. Thin Elk also thinks students should be told the world needs to hear about their culture.

"We have a connectedness to the origins of our people," he says. "The teachings of our people are still among us -- the songs, the dances, the ceremonies. Many cultures are separated from that. They're longing for that touch, that connectedness."

Turning to the Lakota culture for answers for at-risk youth represents bold steps taken in recent years. Only a generation ago, Bureau of Indian Affairs schools and parochial schools on this reservation forbade even speaking the Lakota language.

Estelline - Two-hundred-eighty miles east of Takini School, amid rolling farm land and glacial lakes, is Estelline. With 750 residents, Estelline's population is holding steady. It's a farm town and retirement town (thanks largely to a municipal hospital and nursing home), with 37 private businesses. Unlike some neighboring towns, hit hard by the 1980s agricultural crisis, Estelline's homes are neatly painted, and the yards nicely trimmed.

Still, people say, there's a feeling all this could fall apart. The local economy is depressed. Five dollars an hour is considered good pay here; many residents have to commute to jobs in larger towns 25 miles away. In Estelline $25,000 or $30,000 will buy a fine house, even though housing is tight, and people worry about their property values falling even lower.

"Sometimes there's very real frustration with the economic situation," says Barb Goodfellow, school counselor for all grades (240 students). Residents who boast there's no drug problem here ignore what Goodfellow calls "Estelline's drug of choice": Alcohol. She feels frustrations combined with a lack of social outlets has made heavy drinking acceptable among some adults to the point that they turn their heads to adolescent drinking.

Goodfellow recently started an awareness group for students grades 7 - 12 who are children of alcoholics. She also chairs a Drug and Alcohol Prevention Team which tries to "impact students and their decision-making about substances." The team is a coalition of school and community professionals -- teachers, the county health nurse, the county sheriff and a deputy, Estelline's two policemen, two ministers, and two business people.

But there's a point, says Goodfellow, where communication between human services providers breaks down. Teachers and other school personnel know students, and in many cases their families, well. They could be invaluable resources for Department of Social Services child protection workers, or juvenile court workers, or for when kids need the state mental health system or psychiatric hospital in Sioux Falls. But, in an environment where working together should be easy, these agencies work independently, seldom even communicating with others who serve the same children. Because they are modeled after urban agencies, these local agencies seem unable to plug themselves into small-town modes of interaction.

A year ago Estelline committed itself to a program of academic restructuring which calls for more community input. One goal of this restructuring is to help students see opportunities for local entrepreneurship -- to slow the "brain drain" where graduates leave rural South Dakota for urban careers. Estelline business people, in particular, have responded enthusiastically, coming into classrooms as speakers, involving students in community planning, and more.

Goodfellow reminds people that restructuring and school/community cooperation must extend to at-risk youth, and not stop with the "best and brightest."

People have been receptive to that message. After all, one resident told me, while the "best and brightest" often move on to college and distant careers, at-risk youth "usually stay right here, drop out and face unemployment right here, and in ten years or less we're educating their kids."

During the week I spent in Estelline -- talking to educators, students, parents, and business people -- it struck me that if any local institution could pull together alliances, it was the school system. The schools are the focus of community life. If there's a positive side to the lack of social outlets Goodfellow referred to, it's that school plays, athletic events, and concerts are major community functions, drawing people from all walks of life. When the weekly Estelline Journal came off the press during my visit, 12 of 19 stories were about the schools.

Belle Fourche - By South Dakota standards, Belle Fourche is almost too big to be considered rural. The population is just under 5000. The town lies 400 miles west of Estelline near the Wyoming border, just north of the Black Hills. While Estelline's feel is Midwestern, Belle Fourche's is definitely western. Businesses cater to area ranchers and Black Hills summer tourists, and many residents commute to jobs at Black Hills gold mines or Wyoming bentonite mines.

"Some people are embarrassed about being a cowtown," says chamber of commerce director Kathy Wainman.

"People from away are surprised we have electricity and bathrooms," says a high school senior.

That kind of thinking meant for years people assumed Belle Fourche could improve itself and address problems only by studying urban models.

But no longer. Paul Dingeman, high school principal, says it's time for small towns to understand who they are and to draw upon their own strengths. His office is an example of that thinking. It's open to students who want to say good morning to Dingeman or visit with the secretaries. That personal interaction and easy access are part of what small towns are all about, says Dingeman.

"To survive rural communities have to become one extended family, one interactive, collaborative system," he says. "I'm talking about severe restructuring not only in schools, but in community functioning."

His staff "knows better than anyone" who comes from problem homes, who's at risk for addiction or prison. Hand Dingeman a piece of paper and he'll draw a model of his dream school. The school becomes the hub of a system linking law enforcement, social services, and mental health programs. He envisions shared expertise, and communication between professionals who know and respect one another.

He also sees an expanded role for schools, providing ongoing professional training.

"We have social workers today being trained in college programs that prepare you to work the same way whether you're in New York or Belle Fourche," he says. Why not provide social workers additional training about local problems and unique resources before they begin work in Belle Fourche? Likewise, why not train policemen to "serve their own people" rather than expecting them to model their work after urban police forces?

In fact, Dingeman goes so far as to say maybe urban schools should study rural schools that have dealt successfully with at-risk youth and other problems. Rural schools -- "without the bureaucracy, the overwhelming numbers" -- would be logical national labs for developing effective programs.

But that brings up another issue: There would have to be good salaries to keep teachers in these rural labs over the long haul. Dingeman knows well the frustration of developing teachers just out of college, only to see them move to better paying positions after getting a couple years of experience. To turn Belle Fourche into a true lab, there would have to be outside money.

What has Belle Fourche done to reach at-risk youth?

In addition to building community alliances similar to those in Estelline, Belle Fourche is part of an alliance of school districts. In 1980 Belle Fourche was a charter member of Black Hills Special Services Cooperative, a consortium of 12 school districts that considers services to at-risk youth a high priority.

In 1981 the Cooperative started the area's first alternative school, providing residential as well as day programs. Just this past year, Belle Fourche's civic leaders arranged for 16 of the Cooperative's alternative school students to attend school in a building in the town's business district, close to community activities and job opportunities. Also last year, the Cooperative opened a residence in Belle Fourche for adolescent girls removed from their homes by the courts or Social Services.

The Cooperative brings a mobile lab to Belle Fourche to assess students at risk for future unemployment due to undiagnosed problems. A prescriptive plan is then developed. A transitional care residence for adolescents recovering from substance abuse and in-depth inservice relating to at-risk youth are among other services Belle Fourche and its allied school districts have established through their cooperative.

Summary - "Self-determination" is a term I heard again and again on the Cheyenne River Reservation, meaning the people there are prepared to chart their own course after a century of failed leadership by outsiders. To some extent all the rural schools I visited are thinking in terms of "self-determination" regarding at-risk youth. They see little outside leadership, with urban models viewed as generally inappropriate for their populations. As a result they are looking at local resources, and finding creative thinking and promising alliances.

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Patricia Ann Brahmstedt
Co-Presenter: Howard Brahmstedt
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

Patricia Brahmstedt
Rural Education Consortium
P.O. Box 5112
Tennessee Technological University
Cookeville, Tennessee 38505

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USING THE CULTURAL HERITAGE OF CHILDREN TO FACILITATE TEACHING THE ARTS IN TENNESSEE

Using the cultural heritage of children in rural areas can be valuable in facilitating the teaching of the arts. Arts programs are being built in some Upper Cumberland Middle Tennessee rural schools by using the heritage of people in the area to teach art, music, drama, and folk dancing. Arts specialists from the area and from Tennessee Technological University, a regional university with strong arts programs, are using their talents in the classroom to enrich the natural love of folklore which already exists among these people. Special emphasis is given to the value of using these arts to make life more enjoyable and to make family life more meaningful. This cultural heritage also provides a basis for expanding children's awareness and enjoyment of more sophisticated art activities. The Middle Tennessee Rural Education Consortium, located at Tennessee Tech, has organized a vibrant program in various schools the last five years.

This consortium is an organization, based at Tennessee Tech University, which promotes research and service between the university and member schools from a fourteen county area in Middle Tennessee known as the Upper Cumberland area. Until the consortium was formed, most schools in this area had minimal instruction in the arts. Like most rural schools, they had very small budgets. Since the arts were not considered "essential" subjects for the curriculum, these programs were eliminated when money was scarce. Money to fund such programs was obtained by using university funds designated for the special needs of rural schools, supplemented with donations from other sources; these monies served as matching funds for state and federal grants. Most of the grant money for the arts programs came from the Tennessee Arts Commission. One program received money earmarked for a Drop-out Prevention Program. Much of the planning for these arts enrichment programs was done by faculty members from the university who felt that involvement in the arts was a necessary part of a school curriculum. These faculty members saw that many rural schools had very inadequate arts programs; therefore, they helped organize special arts projects to make the students and the general public more aware of the importance of arts education.

The arts projects which have been implemented have covered a wide range of activities. Those which have facused most on the area's cultural heritage have been the dance/movement instruction and the music programs. Two dance artists have been available to visit schools as artists in residence. One of the dancers is a former member of a folk dance troupe. Most of his work is with upper elementary grades in their physical education classes. The other dance artist is trained in the classical tradition. Although her skill does not reflect the culture of the area, she modifies her dance instruction by teaching basic movements correlated with the music. The music she uses has many folk elements that the children in primary grades (where she usually works) can relate to.

A number of music programs have been sponsored by the TTU Rural Education Consortium. Those that have been most successful have been related closely to folk music, either of the area of from various cultures of the world. Students with limited backgrounds in music can easily relate to the simple harmonies and melodies of folk music, whether from the local heritage or from the ethnic heritage of another region or country. The texts of folk songs also use a frame of reference that these students can usually associate with. Dramatizing well-known ballads and adding simple accompanying instruments has been one type of a very successful classroom activity; e.g., rural schools which have no music teacher or music supplies available from the school budget can have a full year of instruction with one folk singer with a guitar. A correlative activity has been to present a public program which can be prepared easily by allowing specified classrooms to stage their folk ballads. Many of the music programs sponsored by the TTU Consortium have functioned in this way. Folk dance-folk song programs draw large crowds of parents--an important factor in obtaining grant money from the Tennessee Arts Commission.

One music program entitled "Learning by Listening" draws on children's cultural heritage in a different way. It uses their cultural heritage from a more historical perspective. The series includes school programs presented by soloists from the Tennessee Tech University Music and Art Department. Prior to the program, a music specialist visits the classes which will attend the concert. The class receives instruction about the concert and the previewer receives input regarding what the students would like to hear the soloist perform. Topics such as Christmas traditions of early settlers, the many kinds of music in America today, music of the fifties, and folk music of other countries have been discussed and then integrated into the program. Therefore, not all of these topics are based on the region's folk heritage, but they all deal with the culture of particular times, places, and people. A social studies "Rap on Saddam Hussain," included at the end of this paper originated in one of these preview sessions.

A creative dramatic approach to storytelling was used in one of the TTU Rural Education projects. Selections from Aesop's Fables and Grimm's Fairy Tales were acted out by drama-theatre students from the university at one of the schools. This was followed by sessions with an "artist in residence" who helped each class that saw the presentation create its own version of the stories. The stories chosen for dramatization were folk tales familiar to the classes.

Children, ages six to twelve, also enjoyed putting together their own interpretations of such stories as "Henny Penny" from the Grimm's Fairy Tales production which they had seen. The project was very successful.

A research project was attached to one of the music programs funded by the Tennessee Arts Commission three years ago. This project was entitled "The Effect of Music on Children in Rural Schools With No Previous Instruction in Music." Testing was done in both the cognitive and affective areas of behavior of fourth grade students, before and after one year, and again after two years of exposure to specialized music instruction. Much of the music used for the research project was based on the folk traditions of America. Cognitive behavior was tested with a music competency test of basic music elements; affective behavior was tested by using a semantic differential which studied attitudes towards music. Students made substantial gains in their performance levels on the competency test after having music instruction. During the second year, instruction was cut by more than fifty per cent from that of the first year. Surprisingly, the greatest increase in performance levels came during the second year when instruction was at a minimum but after two consecutive years of instruction had transpired. The greatest gains also came in the groups which performed initially at the lowest level. The test group which performed initially at the lowest level on the competency test developed a more positive attitude toward music after the two-year period of instruction. Their initial increase in liking music predicted their improvement in music competency. Children in this competency level demonstrated that as they learned to like the music they were listening to, they learned things about this music more quickly. Because their initial music listening in classes was music they already liked, such as folk music, followed later by new types of music, there was strong reinforcement through this research project of using children's cultural heritage as the foundation for building new concepts and the capacity to enjoy other types of music. Music programs, like the one described in the above research project, which use folk songs as a starting point are easy programs to develop. Since folk melodies are not complex, most people can easily relate to them; the texts of the songs often relate to everyday life. That is why children learn easily when they are utilized.

Using cultural heritage of children to teach the arts is not new in Tennessee. An early music educator and composer in the state, Charles Faulkner Bryan, drew heavily on folk music, both in his own music compositions and in developing his teaching methods. Bryan was the first Chairman of the Division of Music at Tennessee Technological University. Throughout his teaching career, he stressed the importance of using American folk songs as the basis for music in the schools. He felt that music activities, whether in the classroom or at home, should permeate life's activities, and that music should exist for everybody.

Since the 1960s, highly successful methods of teaching music, methods created by Orff and Kodàly, have emerged in Europe. Both of these methods utilze aspects of the folk traditions. The Kodàly method uses Hungarian folk melodies; the Orff method is based essentially in the German folk tradition. The Orff method (formally called the Orff-Schulwerk Method) not only uses German folk tunes but also encompasses dance, movement, speech, and instrumental and vocal music which incorporate all folk elements of German heritage. These methods have both been successfully adapted for use in the American public schools, using American folk tunes instead of German and Hungarian tunes.

Using the cultural heritage of people to teach music has been used for many centuries in Africa and in many cultures of Asia such as those of China, India, and Palestine. A strong example of the teaching of the arts in this manner can be found in China. This country has over 2,000 years of involvement in the arts. Arts programs in China, although stiffled from 1966 to 1979 during the government's "Cultural Revolution," are again flourishing at all levels of education and in very province and culture of China. The arts are a vital part of family and community life, both rural and metropolitan. The arts are included in most school curricula at the primary through the university level. They are usually a vital part of family and community life also. The government in China since the 1980s has not only made great efforts to preserve the numerous kinds of ethnic folk music, arts and crafts, drama, dance, and folklore of its people but also has encouraged a better understanding of Western music and other arts which have been received more readily in the last decade. Artists in China today are combining their inherited cultural artistic traditions with contemporary western ideas to produce a new Chinese contemporary art. This is especially evident in music.

Arts programs based on the cultural heritage of an area, like those in China, will always be strong because folk traditions have survived the test of time. People in a given area are familiar with their cultural heritage and have great pride in it. Building an arts program based on a child's cultural heritage gives the program a strong foundation--one which will allow other ideas to develop and grow. The research project in a school in Middle Tennessee, described above, reinforces the fact that this can happen. Arts programs which start in the folk traditions of a specific area can be expanded to incorporate other ideas and to assimilate and create new, diverse types of art. Using folk traditions of people's cultural heritage is a very effective way to begin teaching the arts. Folk traditions are familiar to people; furthermore, using folk traditions is fun! This is why using the cultural heritage of children facilitates teaching the arts.

RAP ON SADDAM HUSSEIN

Hussein, insane, gives me a pain.
Call out the word and you'll have shame.
Mess with the best, die like the rest;
Crush you like foil, don't mess with our oil.
Think you're having fun,
Jack, you're public enemy #1!

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Robert C. Steinmiller
Co-Presenter: Georgine Steinmiller
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 3:45pm

Robert Steinmiller
Director of Retention
Henderson State University
Arkadelphia, AR 71923

Georgine Steinmiller
Associate Professor
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Retention of At-Risk Students in Higher Education

Literature addressing at risk students abounds on the school level; we see concern for students staying in school. On the college level, similar concern has been expressed. What is of importance is to have implementation of retention concepts in place for at-risk students in higher education.

Students in higher education do benefit from retention efforts. What has been observed is that secondary school students who receive a solid core education are better prepared for higher education than secondary students who do not receive a solid core. Further, rural education often means that a complete college preparatory secondary education is not always possible. Many schools do not have the depth of facilities and faculty to fill out that solid core. Also many rural students become first generation college students who have to rely on university services rather than family experience for a sense of direction.

Specific retention concepts have been applied in programs for higher education students. This paper looks at specific interventions used in such a retention program.

The Office of Retention was established to provide a wide range of academic assistance services including summer freshman orientation, ASSET assessment for non-traditional students, general education audits, career exploration, academic advising, absentee monitoring, and academic assistance for probation students. Students are encouraged to contact the office for information and assistance.

Academic Assistance Program Reports are sheets submitted on a weekly basis by the student that detail the activities the student does to be a more successful student. This contact with the Retention Office allows students a semester-long opportunity to stay in touch with the office as they work to raise their grade point. The Retention Office is a clearing house and contact point for the student/faculty interaction. The Academic Assistance Program has a number of interventions that are reported on the sheet.

The students schedule and keep three appointments during the semester with the Counseling Center to discuss matters such as careers, job prospects, and personal concerns. Choosing a major and finding a sense of purpose are motivational tools that help retain students.

The student has three conferences with each current professor. These conferences focus on the course content, note taking, assignments, and tests. The professor initials or signs the appropriate space on the weekly report sheet. The conferences are ideally conducted at the beginning, at six weeks, and toward the end of the semester. This is a very important opportunity to connect the professor with the student.

A minimum of three conferences per semester are scheduled and kept with the student's advisor at the beginning, at six weeks, and toward the end of the semester. Students with sophomore or higher standing take an unofficial copy of the most recent transcript to the advising session. Advisors sign in the appropriate place on the report sheet. This advisor conference offsets the problem where too often students do not make effective use of advisor skill and availability.

Individual Academic Assistance Work includes activities custom fit to help the individual raise his or her grade point. Students may use the University Library, computers centers and tutorial programs. Commuters especially record study times at home. Study groups are encouraged as are professor-initiated activities.

Self-Assessment is encouraged through a personal record of efforts made to raise Grade Point Average such as tests taken, successes, problems. Students report on absences, and how they have made up the work. Students estimate grades in each class that they are taking as well as overall trends.

Questions are referred to The Retention Office, as well as requests for tutorial support. The office has an open door that allows all students an opportunity to discuss their academic careers. The opportunity is available; the student needs to make use of the opportunity.

This retention program can be transferred to other academic settings. Any Retention program could make use of this set of standard operating procedures that assist in retention. The whole purpose of the program is to increase the sophistication of the student and facilitate the student's best use of the educational experience.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ACADEMIC ASSISTANCE PARTICIPANTS

I. Office of Retention:

Located on the first floor of Womack Hall room 103A, the Retention Office provides a wide range of academic assistance services including summer freshman orientation, asset assessment for non-traditional students, general education audits, career exploration, academic advising, absentee monitoring, and academic assistance for probation students. Students are encouraged to contact the office for information and assistance.

II. Academic Assistance Program Reports:

Each week the student delivers to Womack Hall 103A a report sheet detailing the activities that have been completed. This contact with the Retention Office allows the student a semester-long opportunity to raise their grade point.

III. Academic Assistance Program Activities:

A. The student should schedule and keep two appointments during the semester with the Counseling Center, Womack Hall room 111, to discuss matters such as careers, job prospects, and personal concerns.

B. The student should have two conferences with each current professor. These conferences should focus on the course content, note taking, assignments, and tests. The professor should initial or sign the appropriate space on the weekly report sheet. The conferences would ideally be at the beginning, at six weeks, and toward the end of the semester.

C. A minimum of three conferences per semester should be scheduled and kept with the student's advisor at the beginning, at six weeks, and toward the end of the semester. Students with sophomore or higher standing should take an unofficial copy of the most recent transcript to the advising session. Advisors should sign in the appropriate place on the report sheet.

D. Individual Academic Assistance Work:
Students should do a variety of activities all custom fit to help the individual raise his or her grade point: Huie Library, computers in Evans 114, tutoral programs, etc. Commuters may record study times at home.

E. Self-Assessment:
Personal record of efforts made to raise Grade Point Average: Tests taken, successes, problems.

IV. Refer questions to our office, as well as requests for tutoral support: Henderson State University, Retention Office, Womack Hall 103A, extension 3136.

REPORT#____________________

ID#______________________

HENDERSON STATE UNIVERSITY
OFFICE OF RETENTION
ACADEMIC ASSISTANCE PROGRAM
WEEKLY REPORT SHEET

(Return one report sheet to Womack Hall 103A every week of the semester.)

Name ________________________________ Date of Report ____________

_____Need conference with Dr. Steinmiller
_____Do not need a conference at this time

Activities:

A. Visit Counseling Center Womack Hall regarding motivation, personal, career for a total of two visits per semester.

Session #_____ Signature of Counselor___________

B. Conference with Professor in ______________________________
(subject)

1. Beginning of semester. Signature of Professor__________
2. 6 weeks grade report. Signature of Professor__________
3. End of term. Signature of Professor__________

(minimum of three conferences for each course)

C. Advisor conference (minimum of three per semester)

1. Beginning of semester. Signature of Advisor____________
2. 6 weeks grade report. Signature of Advisor____________
3. End of term. Signature of Advisor____________

D. Individual academic assistance programs: Huie Library, Evans 114, Tutorial programs, etc.

date ________ time in ______ time out _____

E. Self-Assessment: Use this space to specify success or problems you have experienced this week.

STATEMENT OF UNDERSTANDING

ID # ______________

NAME ____

ADDRESS ____

____

TELEPHONE ____

MAJOR ____

ADVISOR ____

As a student on probation, I understand that I must participate in an Academic Assistance Program as set forth in the University Catalog. Accordingly, I affirm my willingness to participate in this program designed to improve my chances of academic success. I will comply with the academic program prescribed for me by the Director of the Office of Retention; attend all classes; work in the Learning Lab and/or any other activities appropriate to help me reach my goal of academic independence.

____
Signature

____
Date

RETENTION OFFICE RESEARCH CHECKLIST
STUDENT ACADEMIC STATUS

I. RESEARCH

_______Student Name:
_______Social Security Number:
_______How did name come to office attention?
_______Date
_______Current Schedule
_______Working Transcript
_______Get address, phone etc data from computer/student book
_______Check to see if on probation

    _____Yes
    _____No

_______Student Support Services

    _____Yes
    _____No

_______Housing
_______Financial Aid
____

I. ACTION:

_______Send see-me letter
_______Contact Advisor
_______Contact Professors

    _____Grades
    _____Attendance

_______Contact Registrar
_______Contact Dr. Clark
_______Contact Dr. Anderson
____

III. REPORT

_______To person initiating
_______Advisor
_______Professors
_______Dr. Clark
_______Dr. Anderson
_______Tom Gattin
____

TO: Registrar's Office

FROM: Office of Retention

DATE: ____________________

RE: ____________________

Name: ____________________

SS# : ____________________

We are working with the above named student and request your assistance regarding the following:

____ Transcript (We need a working copy for counseling.)

____ Entrance Test Grades (current ACT, SAT, ASSET)

____ Needs Review of Transcript by Registrar in reference to the following:

- ____ Grade Point Average
- ____ Probation
- ____ Suspension
- ____ Repeated Course / 60-90 rule
- ____ Graduation
- ____

____ Correct Advisor

____ Change Advisor

____ New Advising Folder

____

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Barbara W. Reeves
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 3:45pm

Barbara Reeves, Ed.D.
McCracken Hall, Box 42
Ohio University
Athens, OH 45701

Using Quilts to Teach

Some educational "buzz" words of the nineties are whole language, cooperative learning, peer tutoring and project centered teaching. While these terms are used to describe "new activities", the concepts behind these terms have long been implemented in some form or other in classrooms throughout the history of education in America. The teacher in the one-room schoolhouse used older students to assist in the recitations of the younger students. Special educators embraced the "language experience" charts in the late 60's because they *were* the reading texts for the classrooms. Eliot Wiggington revived the principles espoused by Dewey in his Foxfire teaching. The Johnsons' work has inspired many teachers to use cooperative learning techniques to assist in mainstreaming. The Goodmans have validated whole language learning and the use of books/literature in an integrated approach to teaching.

As educators continue to look to the reformers for *the new idea* for creating reform, they need to look at the process and use the concepts mentioned above, whether they use the buzz words or not. Many teachers have already found that whole language, peer tutoring and cooperative learning and project centered teaching work with children to make them become better citizens and build a sense of community,not only in their classrooms, but outside the schools.

The major objective of this presentation is to illustrate a *process* with which one could develop teaching units on a variety of topics. To meet this objective information will be presented to participants on ways in which they might use quilts as a teaching tool for diversified subjects. The presenter will describe three current classroom projects which use quilts to teach One project is at the elementary classroom level, one at the secondary level and another at the college level. The focus of this session is on the techniques (proven teaching strategies) as a process for teaching. The particular vehicle or theme for implementing the process happens to be quilts. This was a very personal decision..I liked quilts and had some prior knowledge and skill in the area..In addition, quilts are often associated with rural America and provide a natural resource for all teachers. In most rural communities, there will be a group of quilters who would be willing to work with teachers. Using quilts to teach is a natural way to involve community and school in joint projects.

Using quilts as a teaching medium opens the door to many exciting possibilities for all teachers. Quilts have a rich and long history in our world and recently there has been a resurgence in the popularity of quilts as treasured handcrafts. They have also established a place in the fiber arts and have entire museums and art shows devoted to only this art form. Quilts have often been used as social and political commentaries. (The AIDS Names Project Quilt is probably the most widely known example of such a quilt.) Thus one quilt can be used to illustrate art, history and social issues in a classroom as well provide stimulation for other content areas.

By using a whole language and cooperative learning approach to teaching, a teacher can design an effective and well integrated teaching unit for any age group. There are several exciting projects which have been documented across the United States. A result of such a unit could be the actual construction of a quilt by the class which could then be donated to a community cause or sold and the proceeds donated to a favorite charity and a book written about the process. Indeed the resulting projects are almost unlimited.

In addition, the single subject teacher can use quilts as a teaching medium. The history and English teachers have a wealth of information to choose from in using quilts to teach. There are documented histories of quilts and numerous stories and books using quilts as a theme. The math teacher might use quilt design to teach geometric shapes, tessellations and even fraction calculations. The art teacher has an additional tool in teaching color theory or in creating designs and specific art concepts. One school even has published a book of their designs. The science teacher might focus on the effects of heat retention or the use of natural dyes. The computer science teacher can illustrate designs using one of the many drawing packages available, or even one of the dedicated quilt design programs available. An Australian book describes a marriage of quilts and computers in a national project. The special education teacher and the industrial technology teacher can also use quilts to teach. Even at the teacher training level, quilts can be used to teach.

Elementary School Project

Jane Moore's third grade class is a literature rich classroom in which she uses an integrated unit approach to teaching. The first unit taught this year was to be the study of the *Pioneers and the Westward Movement*. While revising her unit for this group of students, someone suggested that she incorporate several projects in her teaching. As Mrs. Moore developed her unit, she began to look for ideas and learned that others had been successful in using quilts to teach in the elementary classroom. Mrs. Moore wrote a successful grant and was given substantial funding to explore the use of quilts as a teaching medium. The funding was used to:

1. Purchase supplies;including fabric, batting, a quilting frame, thread, needles,etc.(When word of these projects reached the community, Mrs. Moore was inundated with supplies and offers of help)
2. Provide quilting lessons for the teacher and her aide.
3. Support a field trip to take the class to see the Names Project
4. Purchase appropriate children's books for the classroom (See bibliography)
5. Invite a "Guest Quilter" to be teacher for two days at the culmination of the unit in what was called **Quilts Are For Sharing.** (See attached schedule)

Some additional quilt activities in which the children were involved included:

1. Publishing a book of quilt designs
2. Creating their own designer fabric
3. Making two quilts
4. Writing stories about how quilt blocks got their names
5. Estimation of wall space needed for a wall quilt, as well as determining how the blocks should be arranged and how much fabric was needed.
6. Visiting a nursing home and taking a lap quilt to the residents
7. Designing artworks using geometric designs
8. Learning states and locations and quilt blocks named after the states
9. Adding and subtracting fractions

Mrs. Moore has found that the children have been reluctant to give up the quilt theme and has plans to include the theme for the entire school year. The students have plans to continue reading and writing about quilts and to continue to make quilts for additional *pro bono* projects.

Secondary School Project

The second project describes a collaborative effort by three teachers Initially each teacher had decided to use quilts in her own classroom, but the project soon became a group effort and grew beyond the initial three classrooms. The initiating teachers were the Home-Economics teacher, the Developmentally Handicapped teacher (DH) and a Social Studies teacher. Each teacher had a focus in her own classroom, but found that the students wanted to share the ideas in their other classes. the social studies teacher had a focus on the role of women and their quilts as an influence on society..(Did you know that Susan B. Anthony delivered her first speech on equal rights for women at a quilting bee ?) The DH teacher had a focus on careers in the caregiving professions, and the home ec teacher was using a textile study theme in one class and "quilts as a cuddle factor" in her child development class. The teachers completed the following activities in their classes and other classes in their school:

1. Visits to nursing homes extended care facilities, day-care centers and hospitals
2. Research reports on quilts and their historical significance
3. Video taping of community quilters
4. Writing personal histories of quilts
5. Making quilts to be donated to the ABC project
6. Hand dyeing fabric
7. Attending a quilt show
8. Interviewing mothers, grandmothers and other female relatives
9. Designing quilts and other fiber arts
10. Attending an auction where quilts were sold
11. Making a quilt to enter in the county fair
12. Geometric studies and tessellation designs
13. Science project on the effects of insulation and heat retention
14. Research on the use of natural dyes

This group of teachers originally thought that it would not be practical for them to work together nor did they plan to include other teachers at the outset of this project. In their words, "this quilt thing grew and covered them up!" They were very encouraged by the support from their administrators and their colleagues and are now searching for other ideas for collaborative teaching. They do plan to continue the quilt making in two of the classes because of the interaction with the community and the donation of the quilts to the ABC project. The DH teacher was able to find after-school jobs for two of her students as a result of some of the visits made during this project. She felt that she would have never made these contacts had it not been for the ideas of her colleagues in the designing of this unit.

Teacher Training Project

The third or first project was the development of a workshop/course at the university level. In teacher training, we are often called upon to "practice what we preach" In addition, my university encourages innovative action and risk-taking behavior. Thus I undertook the development of a such a "practice what you preach" course for a summer workshop for teachers..The choice of quilts as a theme was purely personal. If I was going to work in the summer, I was going to do something I liked to do. In addition, quilting was an area in which I had resources, knowledge and skill. In order to illustrate the concepts of cooperative learning, whole language, webbing and a project approach to teaching I developed a summer course called *Using Quilts to Teach* and taught it in the summer of 1990. The course was very successful and could be taught each summer using a different theme. In fact, several of my colleagues and I are considering a summer series and hope to get a series of mini-courses going during the school year in which we use public school classrooms for the project centers.

This course required teachers (the students in this case) to learn about quilts by being immersed in quilts. They shared their personal quilt stories (everybody has at least one!) They read about quilts as they researched quilts and quilt topics; each person according to a specific area of interest. They worked in groups to identify relevant strategies and project ideas. They developed webs for their projects, which were all examples of integrated units for using quilts to teach. A visit to a quilt show was included and the teachers planned the event as they would for their classrooms. In addition, the teachers designed lesson plans which consistently demonstrated the use of cooperative learning, whole language, peer tutoring and project centered teaching.

The projects produced as a result of this class were phenomenal. Some of their projects have been described earlier in this presentation. The process of cooperative learning stretched some teachers to think beyond the obvious teaching strategies and design their projects so that teachers could work as teams in the implementation. Several of the teachers even crossed traditional school district boundaries in order to share resources and ideas. During the past year the teachers have all been working on these projects which they created.
The one student in the class was a school nurse enlisted the aid of the first grade teacher so that she could try out her ideas!! While follow-up was not a requirement of this

course, 18 of the 20 teachers have contacted me to let me know what they are doing. Eight of them will present their projects at the university on Project Day. (This is a Saturday at the Ohio University to showcase exemplary classroom activities).

In conclusion the risks was worth taking. Two of the projects described here were the results of projects developed during this course. The other project was an indirect result. While these projects are not unique in that quilts are used to teach, their development as a part of learning a process will allow those teachers to continue to be able to teach using strategies that encourage students to "learn by doing."

Quilt Activities

Ohio Stars
Using squares and triangles cut out of wallpaper to make Ohio Star designs on tagboard
Demonstrations of light medium and dark color values and making four triangles from one square.

Quilt Cookies
Use graham crackers and colored frosting to decorate "Quilt Cookies " to share with fourth grade

Quilt Stories
Each student will tell his/her quilt story
Teacher will share quilt stories from ***America's Quilts and Their Stories***

Quilt Words
Class will generate a word bank of quilt words

Quilt Writing
Students will write about quilts and the pioneers or their visit to the quilt museum.

Quilt Reading
Teacher will read story to the children. Children will choose book and reader.

1. "Tangled Tales"
2. ***Ruby***

Quilt Show

Blocks	Each block will be shown and the children will identify and display them
Quilts	Each quilt will be shown as its story is told

Fabric Design
Children will work in small groups to create fabric. Each child will try each technique.
Painting techniques

1. Brushes
    a. tubes
    b. pots
2. Sponges
3. Pastels
4. Permanent Markers
5. Crayons

Book Worms
Children will make Patchwork Bookworm bookmarks..one to keep and one to share

Personal Blocks
Children will create their personal block with an original or traditional design.

1. Fabric crayons (iron on)
2. Embellish with pastels

QUILTS ARE FOR SHARING

MONDAY

8:30-8:45	Morning meeting
8:45-9:15	Tell Me About Your Quilt Quilt Stories
9:15-9:30	Reading (Shared reading)
9:30-9:45	Quilt Word Bank
9:45-10:00	Quilt History and Customs
10:00-10:15	Quilt Block Show
10:50-11:15	Quilt Writing
11:20-12:00	Ohio Stars construction
12:00-12:30	Lunch
12:30-1:00	Recess
1:00-1:30	SSR
1:30-2:30	Design Fabrics Processes- demo
2:30-2:45	Clean-up

TUESDAY

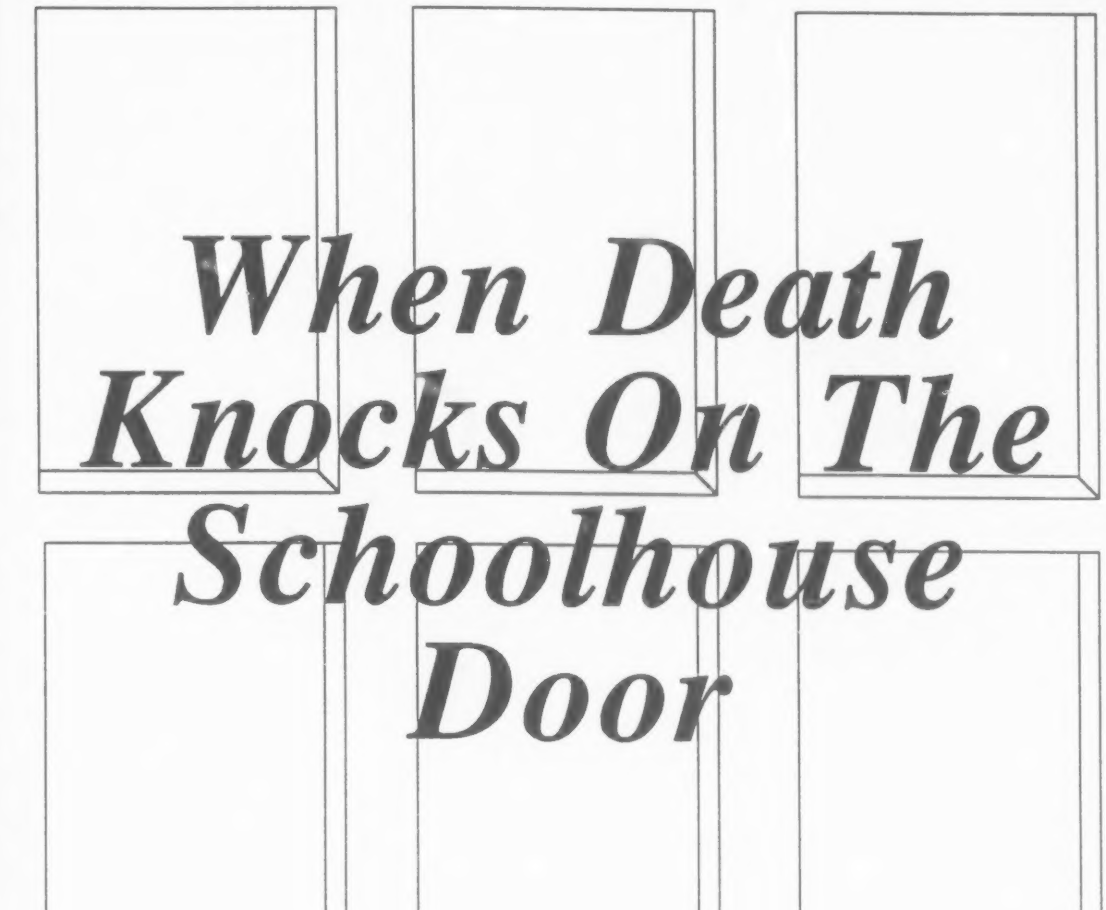
8:30-9:00	Review- Show fabric Story Quilt pictures
9:00-9:30	Make Bookworms
9:30-10:00	Quilt Show with guests
10:00 -10:30	Writing- Pioneer
10:30-11:30	Quilt or blocks (demo, crayons) Iron on, then embellish with pastels
11:30-12:00	Quilt Cookies
12:00-12:30	Lunch
12:30-1:00	Recess
1:00-1:30	SSR
1:30-2:00	Share blocks during video session
2:00-2:30	View video
2:30-2:45	Clean-up

Author's last	Author's fi	Publisher	Date	Title	Audience ag
Bang	Molly	Greenwillow Books	1983	Ten, Nine, Eight	
Berenstain	Stan	Random House	1984	Mama's New Job	3-7
Berger Erwin	Vicki	Scholastic	1987	Jamie and the Mystery Quilt	9-13
Binney	E.		1987	Homage to Amanda	
Brenner	Barbara	Young Scott Books	1965	The Flying Patchwork Quilt	
Briggs Martin	Jacqueline	Lothrop, Lee & Shepard	1988	Bizzy Bones and the Lost Quilt	
Campbell Ernst	Lisa	Viking	1988	Nettie Parson's Good Luck Lamb	6-9
Chorao	Kay	Dutton	1982	Kate's Quilt	3-5
Coerr	Eleanor	Harper and Row	1986	The Josephina Story Quilt	4-8
Ernst	Lisa Campbell	Winthrop	1983	Sam Johnson and the Blue Ribbon Quilt	4-8
Ferrerp, Hedges	and Silber		1988	Hearts and Hands	
Flourney	Valerie	Dial	1985	The Patchwork Quilt	6-9
Geras	Adele	Atheneum	1982	Apricots at Midnight and Other Stories from a Patchwork Quilt	
Grover	Eulalie Osgood	Merrimack	1982	Sunbonnet Babies A-B-C Book	3-7
Hall	Eliza Calvert			Aunt Jane of Kentucky	
Johnston	Tony	Putnam	1985	The Quilt Story	4-7
Jonas	Ann	Greenwillow	1984	The Quilt	3-6
Kuckelman	Bee Neeley			Keep Me in Stitches	
Lester	Alison	Houghton Mifflin	1988	Ruby	4-8
Lobel	Arnold	Scholastic	1985	On Market Street	5-9
Marston	Gwen			Q is for Quilt: An ABC Quilt Pattern Book	
Mayne	William	Knopf	1981	The Patchwork Cat	5-6
Moore	Clement	Holiday House	1980	The Night Before Christmas	All
Polacco	Patricia	Simon & Schuster	1988	The Keeping Quilt	4-9
Rackley	Lahoma Bullen	Apache News	1988	The Quiet Comfort of Quilts	all
Regan	Jennifer	Gallery Books	1989	American Quilts, A Sample of Quilts and their Stories	
Roth	Susan	Antheneum	1984	Patchwork Tales	5-8
Schnuppe	von Gwinner			The History of the Patchwork Quilt	
Soltow	Willow Ann	Wallace Homestead Book Co	1986	Kid's Very Own Quilt Book	
Terris	Susan	Scholastic	198	Nell's Quilt	12-16
Vincent	Gabrielle	Greenwillow	1985	Ernest and Celestine's Patchwork Quilt	6-9
Willard	Nancy	Harcourt Brace Jovanovich	1987	The Mountains of Quilt	6-9
Wood	Audrey	Harcourt Brace	1984	Napping House	4-9

Last name	First name	Date	Title	Magazine
		Winter	Inside Prison Walls, Quilting as Therapy	Quilt
		1984. Spring	Small Delights, Quilts for Children	Quilt
		1984. Spring	Children's Expressions in Fabric	Quilt
		1987. Winter	Quilting for Blind Children: A Touching, Tactile Experience	Quilt
		1988. Fall	A Different Kind of Quilting Class, Learning about Abilities	Quilt
		1988. Fall	Quilting and Computers; Creating Endless Arrays of Shapes	Quilt
		1988. Fall	Academic Artistry: Quilting as a Course of Study	American Quilter
		1988. Winter	Quilting Around the World: The Olympic Games	Quilt
		1989. August/Septembe	Getting Kids into Books	The Mailbox
Adair	Sylvia	1989. Winter	Needle Nuggets	Quilt
Amor	Jennifer	1990.Spring	The Kool-Aid Quilt	American Quilter
Boehning	Paulette M.	1989. June/July	Quilt Stories for Children You Love	International Quilt Magazine
Boyink	Betty	1988. January/February	House Quilts	Stitch N Sew Quilts
Carow	Robin	1988. Winter	Picture Books of Art Design	Quilt
Cunningham and Marstor	Joe, Gwen	1989. May	Homeless Folk: Another View	Patchwork Quilts
Danner	Ruth	1989. June/July	Demonstrating Quilting to Children	Quilt World
Deans	Lee	1988. June/July	Virginia's Gilgamesh	Quilt World
Elkins	Michael	1983. Winter	A Quilt for Peace: This Year in Jerusalem of Gold	Quilt
Fisch	Robin	1988. Winter	Teaching Teens to Quilt, A New Generation of Quilters	Quilt
Frohbieter-Mueller	Jo	1989. Summer	Police Carry Security Quilts to Comfort Scared Youngsters	Quiltworld Omnibook
Houck	Carter	1983. Fall	The Textile Connection	Patchwork Quilts
Houck	Carter	1989. May	Homeless Folk	Patchwork Quilts
Inglis	Carolyn	1989. June/July	Kids & Quilts & PBJ'S	Quilting Today
Kibbey	Marsha	1989. Winter. Volume 5	Holiday Quilts	American Quilter
O'Dowd	Karen	1989. May	(3 X 3 + Scrap =)	Patchwork Quilts
Rudman	Joan	1989. Winter	A "Prep School" for Quilters	Old Fashioned Patchwork
Shirer	Maria	1990. February	How to Make a Quilt: Easy Lessons for Beginners	Quilters Newsletter Magazine
Ward	Kent	Issue # 6	Burgoyne Surrounded and Other Historical Quilts	Traditional Quiltworks
Wolf	Lois	1989. June/July	Natural Fabric Dyeing: The Forgotten Art	Quilting Today
Wucherpfennig	Sandra	1989. Summer	How to Raise Your Children to be Quilters	Quiltworld Omnibook

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Linda P. Steck
Co-Presenter: Ann S. Considine
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 3:45pm

When Death Knocks On The Schoolhouse Door



Coastal Georgia Learning Resources System

Ann S. Considine, Ed. D.
Linda P. Steck, Ed. S.

For assistance call
GEORGIA LEARNING RESOURCES SYSTEM
COASTAL AREA CENTER
Room 108, Victor Hall
Armstrong State College
Savannah, Georgia 31419-1997
912-927-5239

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PREFACE

Dealing with death is a situation that most schools do not prepare for in advance. The need to respond with compassion and competency to a situation of this nature is critical, not only for the school community, but for the families involved. Strategies suggested on the following pages are not inclusive. They are intended to aid a school staff if a death touches the school setting. It is recommended that each school plan to meet it's individual needs prior to a time of crisis.

A good point to start is to make a list of books and resources available in the local schools, public libraries, and various community agencies. After much research and evaluation, the authors chose to focus the resources on printed material. It is easy in a time of crisis to share books and very comforting to have someone read to you. The authors believe that one of the staff activities for a school would be to select audio visual and reading materials that reflect the school and community population. Included in the appendix is a list of materials available at the Coastal Georgia Learning Resources System.

The authors acknowledge with grateful appreciation the contributions from the professionals in Florida, Georgia, and Kentucky.

SUMMARY

Dealing with death is a complicated matter that admits no easy resolutions. The focus of this manual is to guide administrators, teachers, school personnel, parents, community support persons, families, and students in making decisions that ease the passage of the crisis of dealing with death in their school setting. Hopefully, there will be a time to develop a school plan before the crisis rather than school action procedure after the experience.

The primary aim of this manual is to provide the teacher with a direction to create a secure atmosphere in which students can share their feelings, ideas, and beliefs with classmates and teachers. Students should be encouraged to express themselves freely and realize that there are few absolutely right or wrong answers. To provide a safe atmosphere, the teacher should offer warm support to all students and show a sincere interest in listening to the comments of students. Often this type of discussion will lead to choices between alternative courses of action that will result in guiding students to the kind of future decisions they will consider when dealing with death on a public or private of concern.

Should the school be closed and students left to get support from a home where the parent may be working or should the school assume a nurturing role during a school crisis? That choice will determine the course of action for the school setting and the time for the use of the materials in this manual.

ADMINISTRATORS:

Part Eight is devoted to sample memoranda that may be duplicated or used as guides if you find yourself in the middle of a situation without your own plan.

TEACHERS:

In Parts Two through Four there are sample lesson plan activities that may be duplicated or used as guides for making individual lesson plans for elementary, middle, and secondary settings. Be certain to include your special education teachers in your lesson plan materials that are shared during a crisis. Select with care the activities if you find yourself in the middle of the crisis without warning.

COUNSELORS:

There is a resource list of materials in Part Eight that may assist you if you develop groups of students that need to work through the mourning process.

By being prepared to cope with death that impacts on a student, a class, a school, or an entire system, teachers will be better able to assist their students when the need arises. Unfortunately, this need is more frequent than most people believe. It is strongly suggested that all school system personnel be included in the staff development.

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Sherry J. Kern
Co-Presenter: William L. Nielsen
Lavonne Walter
Emilie P. Sullivan
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

RURAL EDUCATORS HELPING THEMSELVES AS TEACHER RESEARCHERS

NATIONAL AND RURAL SCHOOLS CONSORTIUM
MARCH 17-20, 1991
NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

Sherry J. Kern
Assistant Professor

Emilie P. Sullivan
Associate Professor

William Nielsen
Assistant Professor

LaVonne M. Walter
Assistant Professor

Sherry Kern, William Nielsen
Emilie Sullivan, LaVonne Walter

Rural Educators Helping Themselves as Teacher Researchers

Recognition of the need for educational research by classroom teachers is finally being acknowledged in professional literature and by funding agencies (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1990; Fenstermacher, 1986; Strickland, 1988). To encourage teacher research, special interest groups within professional organizations such as the American Educational Research Association, the International Reading Association, and the National Council of Teachers of English have been formed and a number of sources both public and private now offer financial support for classroom teacher research. Such financial support facilitates classroom teacher research which is relevant and immediate. At the same time, conditions for the receipt of research funds have begun to require universities to work in partnership with schools (Lieberman, 1986). Additionally, these research efforts encourage rural educators to become active participants in this collaborative movement. Review of the literature of educational research reveals that teachers in rural settings encounter the same lack of recognition of their ability to design research as their urban counterparts (Travers, 1973; Wittrock, 1986) . Thus, the role of the rural classroom teacher in research design is increasing as educators of all levels share in decision-making and become valued members of research teams.

The purpose of this paper is to (a) trace the role of the classroom teacher in development of educational research, (b) present a study surveying funded research conducted by classroom teachers in a number of rural Arkansas school districts, and (c) discuss recommendations for facilitating classroom teacher research in rural settings. Initially, an historical review of classroom research is presented with followup strands focusing on action research and collaborative research.

Historical Development

Almost 100 years ago John Dewey and Colonel Parker were advocating teachers to be observers in their classrooms, to reflect on their own practices, and to develop theories about teaching and learning (Campbell, 1967, p. 144). These early figures in American education did not view teachers as mere technicians who would follow prescribed methods, but instead envisioned teachers as professionals who would be developers of a knowledge base of teaching as well as being its utilizers. Thus, although the term research was not employed, the concept of teachers retrospectively evaluating classroom interaction and modifying future practices to improve learning was being acknowledged.

Educational research defined as "scientific and disciplined inquiry using quantitative and qualitative approaches" (McMillan & Schumacher, 1989, p. 2) is a relatively new phenomenon in the history of education. Citing Halpin's work in the 4th edition of the Encyclopedia of Educational Research (Ebel, 1969)

> Schools of education have evidently provided atmospheres and conditions uncongenial to scientific research (Halpin, 1966, ch. 8). . . . The most important causes of this situation seem to have been the very strong emphasis on practicality in schools of education, a general lack of research tradition in education, and questionable attitudes of professors and students toward research (p. 1140).

Halpin was making these statements in the 1960s; thus, it can be seen that even the institutions which were training teachers were not enthusiastically supporting research, nor espousing that teachers conduct classroom research.

The 1973 publication on the Second Handbook of Research of Teaching (Travers, 1973) focused on research studies of in-service education conducted by large funded research facilities, such as Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, and studies from R & D centers at leading universities. The emphasis was on reporting experimental research dealing with the process of teacher education. The reported research did not suggest the possibility of classroom teachers as researchers. Teachers were viewed as technicians who were to implement the instructional programs designed by experts and tested in clinical settings. Teachers were not credited in research reports as authors or investigators. In reviewing the literature of education, there are numerous studies that report research on teaching (Ebel, 1969). Typically, studies reported in the Encyclopedia of Educational Research of 1969 dealt with investigations of teacher traits, personality, effectiveness, years of experience and qualification, process-product research, and classroom interaction.

Perusal of the 1986 edition of the Handbook of Research on Teaching also evidences the lack of reporting of research studies attributed to classroom teachers, although one of the five major divisions of the Handbook deals with teacher research and one entire section is entitled "Research on Teaching and Teachers." Many of the investigations conducted by teachers are of applied research. Educators in university settings often fail to consider the importance of teacher initiated research and instead design studies which are imposed and use teachers as data collectors. Conversely, teachers often ignore research results of studies developed in university settings citing the findings as irrelevant or applications as impractical for classroom use (Shulman, 1986; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1990).

During the 1980s articles suggesting the importance of teacher research made their appearance (McConaghy, 1987). With the continuing cries for educational reform has come the advent in the 1990s of calls for collaboration with the public schools for the reform of teacher training in education. True collaboration involves a partnership of teacher training institutions with the public schools. One attempt to achieve this collaboration has been through action research.

ACTION RESEARCH

Due to their mistrust of empirical research findings, classroom teachers have been the strongest advocates of action research. Consequently, they have also conducted the most research of this type. The immediate application of the findings to real problems is a wonderful motivator for classroom teachers.

University research which is often couched in eloquent theory is often viewed by classroom teachers as being highly impractical for application to daily classroom concerns and dilemmas. They are most interested in immediate phenomena that directly impact on their curriculum and instruction. Any research findings that are theoretically sound but practically faulty are subsequently discarded.

Unfortunately, university faculty have been less than receptive to the classroom teachers' efforts. Since action research often does not utilize a tight, experimental or quasi experimental research design there are numerable internal and external concerns, resulting in less than optimal generalizability of the results beyond the immediate population under investigation. This also makes replication of the research findings problematic at best.

Classroom teachers are much less concerned with the ramifications of limited generalizability since the pressing concern within their classroom environment is effectively eliminated. Also, the results of the study are of interest to other teachers who are generally willing to try anything that might work to assist them in their own situations. If the action research proves to be unreliable, then they simply continue looking for alternative approaches. If the strategy works, they are pleased that the question has been adequately investigated.

Obviously, the debate over the acceptability of action research is far from over, but the growing body of action research in the literature makes the genre more and more viable. In response to research design concerns McKernon (1988) has developed a process model of action research that correlates design flexibility and systematic investigation in a unique manner that facilitates more generalizable action research outcomes. In addition the presence of action research makes communication and cooperation between public school personnel and university faculty a necessity rather than an option. Consequently, there has been a dramatic increase in the call for collaborative research efforts in all areas of educational research. Such collaboration builds on the strengths of both groups of researchers while minimizing the weaknesses of the research vehicle.

COLLABORATIVE RESEARCH

Collaboration implies a partnership, a shared concern or agenda. All kinds of issues and problems appear to be of interest and concern for collaborative research. Lieberman (1986) cites curricular concerns (How do students learn to write?), instructional concerns (What programs are most helpful in dealing with disruptive students?), and broader professional concerns (What are the factors that enable some teachers to maintain positive attitudes about their jobs?) among the topics to be included. Collaborative research has been described as "teams of teachers, researchers, and developers engaged concurrently in the conduct of research and development focused on resolving the concerns of classroom teachers" (Tikunoff & Ward, 1983, p. 453). In "pure" collaborative research classroom teachers are involved in every aspect of the investigations and often initiate much of the research.

Research on instruction using the collaborative process is more difficult to accomplish than research conducted without collaboration (Tikunoff & Ward, 1983). If this is true, why should collaborative research be encouraged? What are its benefits?

According to Noto (1984), one benefit of collaborative research is that it can give teachers a heightened sense of self-worth and esteem by providing favorable attention from peers, parents, administrators, and students. "When teachers see themselves as valuable, others see them that way too" (Noto, 1984, p. 221). Another benefit is that being actively engaged in research helps teachers to acquire research skills and therefore will result in an increased likelihood that teachers will use and apply their own research findings as well as those of others (Huling, Trang, & Cornell, 1981). Collaborative research can also help bridge the gap between research and practice (Pine, 1981). Ross (1984) concluded that participation in collaborative research helps teachers to develop a realistic conception and personal definition of research while Graves (1981) reported that conducting research enabled teachers to become more critical consumers and therefore increased the possibility that they would use research findings appropriately.

More than many other occupations, teaching is practiced in isolation. Collaboration breaks the grip of psychological isolation from other adults that has been a characteristic of teachers in their workplace (Sarason, 1971). By forming partnerships with each other and with local university faculty, classroom teachers begin to lessen this isolation.

A great deal has been spoken in recent years about teacher empowerment. Gene Maeroff (1988) believes teachers throughout the nation need to be seen "in a new way." He sees a change in perception as the beginning of empowerment. Maeroff's "blueprint" for empowering teachers involves their gaining in three key areas. These areas are their status, their knowledge, and their access to decision making. Perhaps involvement in collaborative research is one way to help teachers make these gains. Strickland (1988) urges teachers "to depend on themselves as decision makers and gain confidence in themselves as judges of what they know and believe." (p. 762) She feels being involved in classroom inquiry as a teacher-researcher may be an extremely important way to build teacher self-confidence and encourage feelings of empowerment.

Collaborative research is a part of the teacher-as-researcher movement. In this partnership classroom teachers team up with more traditional researchers who tend to be university-based. This relationship takes advantage of the different expertise and perspectives each partner brings to the situation. As a part of this research team, the classroom teacher has a vital role as co-investigator. Therefore, classroom teachers are active partners, working with, and not merely being worked on, by their university colleagues.

DATA ANALYSIS

This on-going study involves a survey of twenty-two school districts in the state of Arkansas which includes schools of the Arkansas Renewal Consortium. Data presented in this paper reflect the initial findings from eleven districts which represent a statewide cross-section of rural school districts. Initially, a questionnaire was sent to each district requesting information concerning funded research conducted by teachers for the five year period 1986-1991. Data from the questionnaires were analyzed by (a) size of the community in which the schools are located, (b) funding source, (c) year of funding, and (d) elementary / secondary school level.

For ease in reporting of data, the following system was used. First, school districts were divided into three categories by community size. Category I included five school districts located in communities with under 5,000 population; Category II included three school districts in communities with populations between 5,000 and 20,000; and Category III included three school districts in communities with populations between 20,000 and 40,000. Second, funds reported were identified by source (federal, state, local, and private), year of funding and elementary / secondary level.

A comparative summary of the reported data is displayed in Table I. A significant finding is that elementary schools secured more overall funding than secondary schools, particularly through private sources. Most of the monies obtained by secondary schools came from federal and state sources. Category III districts (those with 20,000 - 40,000 population) generally were able to receive more funding than the other districts with the exception of Category II elementary schools. It is worth noting that one Category II elementary school district received approximately $200,000 in private funding during one school year. Overall, Category I schools had a more limited funding base; this is most apparent in regard to local monies. Many of the locally funded research projects by Category II and III districts were in the $100 to $500 range. Also, there was evidence of a significant increase in funds secured during the last two reporting years. Table III reports research funds secured for the secondary school level. Data in Table II reflect the same significant increase in funds for the last two reporting years at the elementary level.

TABLE I

A COMPARATIVE SUMMARY OF FUNDED TEACHER RESEARCH ACCORDING TO SCHOOL LEVEL, SCHOOL DISTRICT CATEGORY, AND FUNDING SOURCE

(11 school districts)

ELEMENTARY LEVEL BY CATEGORY

	I	II	III
Federal $	60,000	0	93,991
State $	34,000	4,013	27,375
Local $	0	2,250	12,179
Private $	31,100	237,700	17,240
TOTAL $	**125,100**	**243,963**	**150,785**
Avg. $	25,020	81,321	50,262

SECONDARY LEVEL BY CATEGORY

	I	II	III
Federal$	0	6,450	29,156
State $	20,588	1,000	60,160
Local $	0	1,500	1,570
Private $	0	3,525	4,000
TOTAL $	**20,588**	**12,475**	**105,311**
Avg. $	4,118	4,158	35,104

CATEGORIES OF SCHOOLS BY SIZE OF DISTRICT

CATEGORY I	(5 districts)	< 5,000 - population
CATEGORY II	(3 districts)	5,000 - 20,000 - population
CATEGORY III	(3 districts)	> 20,000 - 40,000 - population

TABLE II

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL FUNDING BY YEAR
(11 school districts)

CATEGORY I

YEAR	FEDERAL	STATE	LOCAL	PRIVATE	TOTAL
90-91 $	0	31,000	0	0	31,000
89-90 $	60,000	0	0	31,000	91,000
88-89 $	0	500	0	100	600
87-88 $	0	2,500	0	0	2,500
86-87 $	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL $	60,000	34,000	0	31,100	125,100

CATEGORY II

YEAR	FEDERAL	STATE	LOCAL	PRIVATE	TOTAL
90-91 $	0	913	1,000	2,000	3,913
89-90 $	0	3,100	500	234,200	237,800
88-89 $	0	0	750	500	1,250
87-88 $	0	0	0	0	0
86-87 $	0	0	0	1,000	1,000
TOTAL $	0	4,013	2,250	237,700	243,963

CATEGORY III

YEAR	FEDERAL	STATE	LOCAL	PRIVATE	TOTAL
90-91 $	31,882	25,500	5,024	12,590	79,996
89-90 $	45,780	1,000	5,670	4,650	57,100
88-89 $	2,383	875	725	0	3,983
87-88 $	12,906	0	760	0	13,666
86-87 $	1,040	0	0	0	1,040
TOTAL $	93,991	27,375	12,179	17,240	150,785

TABLE III

SECONDARY SCHOOL FUNDING BY YEAR
(11 school districts)

CATEGORY I

YEAR	FEDERAL	STATE	LOCAL	PRIVATE	TOTAL
90-91 $	0	0	0	0	0
89-90 $	0	20,588	0	0	20,588
88-89 $	0	0	0	0	0
87-88 $	0	0	0	0	0
86-87 $	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL $	0	20,588	0	0	20,588

CATEGORY II

YEAR	FEDERAL	STATE	LOCAL	PRIVATE	TOTAL
90-91 $	6,450	0	0	975	7,425
89-90 $	0	1,000	1,000	1,000	3,000
88-89 $	0	0	500	1,500	2,000
87-88 $	0	0	0	0	0
86-87 $	0	0	0	50	50
TOTAL $	6,450	1,000	1,500	3,525	12,475

CATEGORY III

YEAR	FEDERAL	STATE	LOCAL	PRIVATE	TOTAL
90-91 $	8,450	54,110	0	975	63,535
89-90 $	14,500	6,000	370	4,000	24,870
88-89 $	0	1,000	1,100	1,500	3,600
87-88 $	12,656	0	600	0	13,256
86-87 $	0	0	0	50	50
TOTAL $	35,606	61,110	2,070	6,525	105,311

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

While no one overall pattern in funding for teacher research is noted from reviewing the total funds data of Table I, several trends can be seen which warrant exploration. When the sub-totals by source and category are analyzed, Category I schools from small communities had no funds from local sources. However, local sources did contribute funds for Category II and III schools. In reading the data submitted by the schools in these districts it was learned that larger districts and private sources often supported teacher research by small grants. Frequently the private awards required matching funds be obtained. It would seem that teachers and would-be researchers in small communities are at a disadvantage in obtaining research funds due to less district support and possibly fewer private sources, such as industry, being available. Small communities may also lack the presence of a teacher preperation institution with which to collaborate in grant writing. Although local funding is noted in Table II for the Category I and II school districts, it is not continuously reported for Category I and II school districts at the secondary level according to Table III. It is possible that local funding may be more subject to the effects of school budget limitations as is reflected by the lean years of 1987-88 and 1990-91 or to trends in types of research to be funded. From a study of the types of research being funded during the five year period, it was seen that most funding was for math and science projects. Currently, there is a strong emphasis on literacy as well as math and science research which may be supporting the efforts of elementary school researchers. In contrast, math/science funds are often concentrated in the secondary schools. This particular trend may account for the greater levels of reported state and federal funding at the secondary level.

Based on the data gathered thus far, it is clear that teacher-researchers need to take advantage of all funding sources. Those would-be researchers from small communities may need to establish links with local businesses to get support for specific classroom projects. In some areas local schools are adopted by industries which support instructional programs. It would seem important that teachers and schools also actively seek support for small research grants, especially in the smaller Category I communities. The review of the literature has shown that often a small grant of only $200 can be significant in teacher research where overhead costs are minimal and results are immediate and maximized.

The fact that the school districts contacted did not record information about teacher grants awarded was a revelation of significance. Schools were failing to capitalize on the positive effects of teacher secured, outside funding. It was evident that little school district attention or reward was given to successfully funded researchers. Based on contact with twenty-two school districts, it is strongly recommended that schools track teacher research efforts and make the public aware of the funding received from outside sources. It is also suggested that the results of the research be publicized to assist in broadening the base for support.

CONCLUSIONS:

Reviewing the history of the development of classroom teachers' involvement in research efforts illustrates their changing role and the regard with which teachers are held. Teacher involvement in research, not as mere collectors of data, subjects or utilizers of others' findings, but as the instigators and designers, reflects the changing role of teacher as a recognized professional. Classroom teacher research and partnership in research efforts by faculty from higher educational institutions evidence the empowerment of teachers and the professionalization of teaching. The movement to support teacher enhancement is coming from professional associations, private industries, and local school districts. Institutions of higher education are finding that to be eligible for research funding they are forced into partnerships with public schools for research development and to gain access for data collection. Funding for such problem solving research can achieve significant results due to its relevance and immediacy.

Teacher research generates a knowledge base within the naturalistic setting. Also, it is pragmatic and cost efficient. Given these considerations the movement toward recognition of teachers as professionals and the current emphasis on classroom teacher research for educational change is easily understood. Thus, public schools and classroom teachers are no longer passive recipients, but are the decision makers in securing research dollars and controlling their utilization. However, classroom teacher research is not without its difficulties. Among the problems to be overcome are those related to knowledge of research techniques, teacher release time, cost of implementation, establishment of support groups, developing collaboration, and dissemination of research findings. Addedly, rural educators face concern for isolation from sources of information and training (Yount, 1986).

To assist rural teachers in improvement of instruction a combination of approaches are being utilized. Partnerships and collaboration projects between schools and institutions of higher education are one possibility (Bracey, 1990). Another alternative described by Stanic and Patement (1989) involves small amounts of funding to hire substitutes so that teachers in remote locations may observe and critique each other. Thus, the role of the classroom teacher, whether urban or rural, in research design is increasing as educators of all levels share in decision-making and become valued members of research teams. Through individual and cooperative research efforts, both urban and rural educators can help themselves.

To fulfill such expectations, teacher education curricula must include site-based training in pragmatic research techniques that are readily applicable to classroom settings. Schools need to consider arrangements to permit teachers release time to develop and conduct research. Knowledge of funding sources for classroom research needs to be disseminated. Support groups within schools and partnerships of teacher training institutions with the schools need to be established. Methods of conveying research findings to a broader audience of educators need to be utilized. Through collaboration of professionals across all levels of education, classroom research, the action level of education, can be enhanced and its findings disseminated. This is truly educational empowerment as it was envisioned.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
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Alternative Methods of Math and Social Studies Instruction for At-Risk Students Based on Learning Style Needs

Motivating students to learn and making learning meaningful are two factors that are the key to any child's academic success. However, despite a wealth of well-conducted research in the areas of math and social studies instruction, as well as learning styles research, some teachers continue to function in the "dark ages" in terms of the teaching-learning process. These teachers continue to use endless worksheets, workbook pages and review sheets to teach math and social studies. These materials are not motivating nor do they simulate a real learning experience. They certainly do not account for individual differences among students. In fact, for students having learning difficulties (academically at-risk students), they compound the problem by causing more stress and frustration with the process of learning mathematics skills and concepts, as well as social studies content. These traditional methods of instruction that are often practiced in rural classrooms, as well as others, do not accommodate the learning style needs of academically at-risk students. Lack of experiences of students in rural areas further emphasizes the need for nontraditional methods of instruction and meeting the learning style needs of these students.

Extensive data verify the existence of individual differences among youngsters - differences so extreme that identical methods, resources or grouping procedures can prevent or block learning for the majority of the students (Dunn & Dunn, 1979). Furthermore, strong intuitive appeal surrounds the notion that different individuals learn in different ways. Therefore, different activities or methodologies are required for each student to be successful.

Using teaching methods that take into consideration the students' learning styles can increase achievement (Wheeler, 1988). Research has continually shown (Carson & Bostick, 1988) that most students cannot learn effectively by only listening and imitating; yet most teachers continue to teach as they were taught, not as they were taught to teach. In fact, most of the failure in schools today is due to a tradition of teaching that is inappropriate to the way most students learn since many teachers are still teaching in the "pencil-and-paper" era.

Although authorities in learning styles disagree about the individual style model that should be used, many agree that accommodating learning styles can produce an increase in achievement and attitude test scores, student morale, student self-confidence, and self-esteem (Brandt, 1990; Dunn, 1990; Hand, 1990; O'Neil, 1990). Reductions in the number of discipline referrals and in the amount of tension in schools have also been reported (Brunner & Majewski, 1990; Dunn, 1990). This evidence supports the fact that traditional methods of instruction are no longer enough to meet the needs of today's students. Furthermore, students simply do not retain for long what they learn by imitation from lectures, worksheets, or routine homework. Presentations and repetition may help students do well on tests and lower-order skills, but they are generally ineffective as teaching strategies for long-term learning, for higher-order thinking, and for versatile problem solving.

Need for Improvement in Math and Social Studies Instruction

According to Everybody Counts: A Report to the Nation on the Future of Mathematics Education (1989), the first high school graduates of the 21st century are currently enrolled in the third grade. Most of these students will leave school without sufficient preparation in mathematics to cope with either on-the-job demands for problem solving or college expectations for mathematical literacy. All of these students must receive mathematics instruction and preparation appropriate for the twenty-first century. To meet this goal, teachers must understand and emphasize that knowledge about and high academic performance in mathematics is the best way "up" for students from disadvantaged backgrounds. Furthermore, problem solving skills, use of the calculator and manipulatives in instruction, active engagement of students in the learning process, and mathematics based on real life experiences are emphasized in the new National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (1989) standards.

Additional research (Towery, 1989) points out that social studies instruction in the rural setting of one southern state reflected the national trends toward a text book based, test driven program which deemphasizes individual needs and does not address student diversity. Such an emphasis on knowledge acquisition and results (as opposed to process) tends to reinforce the "helplessness" and failure inherent in at-risk students (Alderman, 1990). In addition, rural school students lack the schema formation necessary for understanding such social studies concepts as communities and maps (Welton and Mallan, 1988). The rural at-risk school age child has less opportunity for the travel and interaction necessary to effectively develop a conceptual background than his/her advantaged counterpart.

Specific programs developed to address learning style, reading comprehension strategies and goal attainment have been successful in a number of studies (Alderman, 1990; Carbo, 1990; Brunner and Majewski, 1990). Mathematics and social studies content and skills instruction are easily adaptable to instructional strategies which allow students to develop as self-confident problem solvers, form appropriate conceptual schemes, and engage in instruction based on diagnosed learning styles and needs (Carson & Bostick, 1988; Jarolimek, 1990).

Academically At-Risk Students

According to O'Neil (1990), at-risk students, those with an increased chance of failure in school due to "personal behaviors, past educational records, or family problems" (p.5), have more to gain from alternative methods of instruction based on learning style needs. The overuse of traditional methods of instruction and the lack of alternative methods often work against these underachieving students.

Droupouts, students that "can't make it" in school, have learning style needs that are not accommodated by the current system of education (O'Neil, 1990). These students tend to work better in soft light and an informal room design such as sitting on the floor; they prefer to work in pairs or groups, have a high need for movement, are not motivated, responsible, nor persistent, learn best through tactual or kinesthetic activities, and tend to be global and/or impulsive learners. These students are labeled as underachievers or problem students since their learning style profile does not match the teaching style of most classrooms. While many teachers are promoting quiet, independent studies, these students learn better through direct experience, cooperation, collaboration and interactions (O'Neil, 1990).

The fact that learning style based instruction is especially appropriate for academically at-risk students is supported by a variety of research. This research reports that positive effects abound when learning-style based instruction is used with special education students, under-achieving populations, students in low socioeconomic areas, minority students, and students who have experienced "traumatic family upheavals" (Dunn, 1990, p.17).

Traditional methods of instruction do not, as any singular method cannot, meet the needs of all students, especially the academically at-risk students. When students need remediation, time is usually spent reteaching material using the same initially ineffective methods. Repetition rarely works! More often than not, it simply reinforces previous failure. The best time to learn the material is when it is first taught; the best way to teach information is to teach it well the first time (Carson & Bostick, 1988). An effective teacher must consider the individual differences of children, adjust instruction to ensure children's success, provide motivating activities which actively involve children in the learning process, and remember that unsuccessful students may be students whose only problem is that their learning preference is different from the teacher's presentation (Gregorc, 1979).

Can Learning Styles Be Implemented with Strategies I Already Use?

Implementing a learning styles model does not mean restructuring an entire classroom. Through awareness of learning styles, teachers begin to realize that many of the instructional strategies and activities that they currently use in their classroom are accommodating individual learning preferences. Teachers need only to consider how each of the instructional activities work to accommodate students' learning preferences. This calls for more deliberate thoughtful planning of activities.

Two factors contribute to the ease of implementing learning styles. First, more than one area of stimuli (i.e., environmental, emotional, sociological, physical, and psychological) can be accommodated through a single instructional strategy. Second, individuals have a strong preference for only five or six elements (Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1989). For the other elements, the individual usually has no preference one way or the other. It is not necessary to plan a multitude of different activities for each lesson.

How Can I Implement Learning Styles?

Before understanding how instructional activities and strategies relate to learning styles implementation, one must have a basic knowledge of learning styles. Learning styles (Dunn,

Dunn, & Price, 1989) are defined in terms of how individuals react to the 21 elements of instructional environment. The revised Learning Style Inventory (1989) assesses an individual's learning style preference in each of 21 different elements which are placed in five major categories: (a) environmental (sound, temperature, light, and design), (b) emotionality (motivation, persistence, responsibility, and structure), (c) sociological preferences (learning alone or with peers, learning with adults present, learning in combined ways, being motivated by the teacher, and being motivated by a parent), (d) physical characteristics (auditory, visual, tactual, and kinesthetic preferences, time of day preferences, need for intake, and need for mobility), and (e) psychological inclinations (global/analytic preferences, hemispheric preferences, and impulsive/reflective thinking).

The following sections will describe instructional strategies that can be used to accommodate some of the learning style preferences. Knowledgeable teachers can easily extend this list.

Emotional Stimuli

Students have increased comprehension when they are motivated to learn mathematics and social studies concepts and skills (Fass, & Schumacher, 1978). Motivation is usually linked with preference for persistence and responsibility. As stated earlier, academically at-risk students are usually not motivated, responsible, nor persistent; they also have a great need for structure.

The primary factor in accommodating these children is providing material that is interesting and meaningful and showing children how the material can be used in other situations. Students with these learning preferences need to be prepared for understanding the presented material. That is, the teacher must provide background knowledge, give a purpose for learning the information, concept, or skill, and divide long chapters or concepts into shorter units or subskills. Simply by giving students this guidance, teachers decrease the effort that the student must exert to understand the material and increase motivation (Irwin, 1990).

Mapping (or webbing) strategies can be used to provide structure for students who need it. Semantic maps illustrate new concepts and their relationship to other concepts (Pearson & Johnson, 1978). Before reading a social studies selection, students brainstorm anything that comes to mind concerning the topic of the selection. The teacher lists the words and phrases on the board and then puts them into a diagram which indicates the relationship among the ideas. After students have read the selection, they add additional concepts to the map.

A second type of map that can be used in social studies is the story map (Beck & McKeown, 1981) which is used with narrative text. The teacher prepares a story outline based on the contents of the selection which include appropriate elements such as the problem, plan, events, and/or resolution. After the students read the selection, the teacher and students fill out the map together using questions that the teacher has prepared to guide the completion of the map.

Mapping can also be used to help students read, understand, and compute the answers to word problems in math. The word problems used in this type of activity should be meaningful, interesting, and relate to real-word situations. The teacher prepares a visual outline for the problem similar to the outline prepared for the social studies example presented above. The teacher discusses the outline to give the students key points to find in their reading; the students read the word problem; the teacher and students fill out the map together;. and the students compute the answer to the word problem.

Mapping provides students with motivation by giving them a task for which they can see an end and by providing structure that can be used in future learning. This assists them in staying on task, being involved, and completing the task with little assistance.

Students who lack persistence need short tasks with breaks between them. This can be accommodated very easily in the math classroom. If an assignment would normally include 25 problems, increase it to 32 problems. The divide it into quarters making it four small assignments of eight problems each. Let students pick six of the eight problems to complete. Given shorter assignments, a choice, and a short break between assignments, many less persistent students complete assignments they would not complete in traditional situations. After they finish the first assignment, success will build success, and they will be more motivated to finish the remaining assignments.

Students with low responsibility permit their attention to become diverted when a task becomes difficult. When working with these students, teachers should do three things. First, let the student know the teacher believes the task is important. Second, talk to the student like a colleaque; do not "talk down" to him/her. Finally, give the student a choice of how he/she will demonstrate the learning. Academically at-risk students will usually choose more nontraditional assignments when given a choice.

Sociological Stimuli

The sociological elements concern grouping students for instruction. There is no best way to group students for maximum learning. Students learn in a variety of sociological patterns that include working alone, with one or two friends, with a small group, with adults, or in any combination of these patterns. However, academically at-risk students usually prefer to work with one or two friends or a small group. These preferences are easily accommodated in the classroom. When an assignment in given, students can be given the option of working in any of the sociological grouping patterns. For example, one secondary math teacher decided to give choices on assignments. Students working in pairs and groups all had to turn in the same, completed assignment. However, each person had to check and sign-off on all other group members' work before giving it to the teacher to be graded. Each student was tested individually. After implementing this system of grouping, two boys in the class who had been failing math were receiving B's by the end of the semester. One of the boys went on to successfully complete an advanced math class the next year (Dotson, 1988).

Accommodating children whose preference is learning in combined ways (i.e., alone, with peers, and with adults) can be accomplished using cooperative learning. According to Slavin (1990), two concepts of Student Team Learning are essential for basic skills achievement - team rewards and individual accountability. Two general cooperative learning methods are Student Teams-Achievement Division (STAD) and Teams-Games-Tournaments (TGT).

In STAD, students are assigned to four-member heterogeneous teams. First, the teacher presents a lesson. The team members work together to make sure that everyone has mastered the concept. Finally, all students take individual quizzes on the material. TGT is similar to STAD except the quizzes are replaced with weekly tournaments in which students compete with members of other teams. Cooperative learning provides the opportunity for all students to receive explicit instruction from the teacher, work with their peers, and complete assignments individually, thereby accommodating the individual learning preference in combined ways.

Physical Stimuli

Academically at-risk students usually learn best through tactual or kinesthetic resources and have a high need for mobility. These students need to be physically involved in the learning process. They learn through hands-on activities and direct involvement. These children remember best what they have done, not seen nor heard.

Students who prefer to learn through tactual and kinesthetic means or who require mobility to learn can be accommodated through the following activities suggested by Duffy and Roeler (1989): (a) illustrate historical events or social studies selections through dioramas and shadow boxes, (b) make miniature stage settings using pipe-cleaner figures to describe selections in the social studies text, or (c) draw murals to illustrate social studies content.

All students, regardless of age, must have a good foundation in math to be successful in math. Specifically, academically at-risk students must have concrete objects to examine in order to understand what they are doing. Teachers need to begin teaching any concept or math skill to these students by using concrete objects such as base-ten blocks, chips or counters, fraction pies or squares, geometric figures, and the like before progressing to representational (pictures) and abstract (numbers) activities. These students must experience math with concrete materials and in terms of the real world to have a good foundation in learning mathematics. Using concrete materials does not encourage idle play time as some propose, it sets up situations that foster logical thought for these students.

Using tactual/kinesthetic activities should not be a problem for any math teacher since there are more manipulative objects available for teaching math concepts to the kinesthetic learner than any other curriculum area. These physical objects can be manipulated by students to learn numeration and notation, counting, addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, place value, problem solving, probability, and measurement. The tactual/kinesthetic learner who is having difficulty mastering math concepts may understand these concepts more easily when shown how to use concrete objects to represent number units. By manipulating blocks, the kinesthetic learner can begin to understand the relationship between numbers. After practice with the blocks, the kinesthetic learner will be able to complete computations without their use. The use of various manipulative objects enables the kinesthetic learner to understand new math concepts and reinforces basic math skills (Carson & Bostick, 1988).

Psychological Stimuli

Academically at-risk students who learn best through global techniques, who are right-brain processors, and who are impulsive thinkers tend to learn best with an overall picture of the concept (Dunn, Dunn & Price, 1981). These students are simultaneous learners. Teachers should redirect students' attention by asking how things make sense within the entire passage in social studies or the entire word problem or concept in mathematics and emphasize relationships of specific facts to overall meaning (Walker, 1988). Strategies that can accommodate these learners include guided imagery, semantic maps, and story maps. All of these strategies guide the reader to examine the whole text or content, rather than first examining separate ideas and then putting them together.

Effective teachers realize that global learners process information in a whole-to-part format. They need to see the entire picture before they concentrate on the smaller steps. In other words, they need to know where they are going before they find out how to get there. These students need to grasp the entire concept before they are ready to see the details (Dunn, 1988).

In mathematics , for example, after working with concrete objects to understand the concept of division, they need to see the long division problem completely worked before they are ready to take the process apart and put it back together in a step-by-step process.

How can I provide for varied learning styles using instructional units?

As mentioned earlier, previous work by one of the authors (Towery, 1989) has indicated the need for incorporating instructional strategies into elementary social studies which better meet the learning needs of rural children. The difficulties teachers encounter in incorporating varied strategies into their program may somewhat be overcome by use of unit teaching plans which incorporate a variety of instructional approaches into the classroom melieu. Unit teaching has been utilized for a long (at least in educational terms) time. Hanna, Potter, and Hagaman (1958) provide an excellent rationale for the development of teaching units based on the developmental and psychological needs of children. Research reports presented in Lemlech's (1990) text on general methods of elementary teaching indicate increased student learning when units of study using two interacting instructional methods are used.

Despite the value and tenure of unit teaching, many teachers remain more comfortable with textbook instruction. However, the value of the unit approach should not be overlooked (Van Cleaf, 1991). The unit (instructional activities built around a social studies topic) offers a much broader field for providing varied experiences for individual students than do textbooks (Kenworthy, 1981; Jarolimek, 1991). Furthermore, units may be structured to both the needs of children and the resources of the school (Van Cleaf, 1991). Finally, subject field units may be organized around a specific topic in social studies and may incorporate learning activities from other subject areas (Lemlech, 1990). Thus, the teaching unit provides an avenue by which the elementary teacher may offer a variety of learning experiences which will enhance the learning of children by the appeal to a wide range of learning style preferences.

For purposes of illustration (see figure 1) an outline of activities which might be incorporated into an elementary social studies unit is provided. This example demonstrates how the unit teaching approach can include a wide variety of learning experiences during the duration of instruction. The focus of the example is on strategies and activities, not on content. There is no attempt to meet all 21 learning preferences either daily or over the course of the unit. Rather, the emphasis is on demonstrating how a wide variety of experiences may be offered over a three week period. In addition, the reader will note the use of an activity to assist schema development prior to reading (Duffy & Roehler, 1986); integrated literature and language arts activities (Cox, 1988), and the use of flexible grouping patterns based on interest, need, and ability.

The example unit does presuppose that students are familiar with the strategies and not all activities need explanation. The best way to begin is to teach the students one new activity in each unit. Repeated use of the strategies will make it a part of not only the teacher's repertoire, but the students' as well.

FIGURE 1: Suggested Activities for a Fifth Grade Unit on Native Americans

DAY	*ACTIVITIES*	*PURPOSE*
1	The whole class views a video on life among the Plains Indians with pre and post viewing discussion/questioning. Students then view a display of Native American artifacts and talk informally about the items on display.	Develop background knowledge for schema formation using several physical characteristics Motivate
2	The teacher leads the whole group in a mapping activity to identify possible topics for student research. Students select a topic and are allowed to work in pairs or alone to research their selection through reading resource publications, or trade books, construction activities, and sociodrama.	Provide a purpose for research, reading, and information gathering Allow a choice in work assignments based on interest and need Develop persistence and responsibility
3 - 7	Students are assigned to work on their projects for part of the period in the room. They are allowed to use the media center and room resources. A portion of the assignment is to be completed at home. During part of the period, the teacher reads from trade books about Native Americans. There is a rich source of materials. Students enter into large and small group activities such as writing, simulations, problem solving, and viewing filmstrips. Additional activities are provided in learning centers for those students finishing early.	Use varied physical learning characteristics Build background knowledge Develop research skills Allow a choice in working alone or together Allow for different psychological inclinations
8 - 9	The students make oral or written reports of their findings along with displays (from a wide choice of options, i.e. dioramas, charts murals) illustrating their work.	Motivate Share information Build concepts Allow for creativity Develop collateral language skills

10-11	Students are assigned to a cooperative team of three to search the text and other sources for information to insure that all necessary information to meet the unit objectives has been covered.	Develop social skills Provide for peer motivation
12	A whole group activity using games such as Jeopardy or other variations on game shows is used to review student learning.	Motivate Provide for formative evaluation
13	A written test with provision for any students with learning disabilities or other needs is administered.	Assess mastery of knowledge and skills
14-15	The teacher pulls individuals and/or small groups to re-teach concepts missed on test. Students engage in additional time in the learning centers or performing enrichment activities in writing, filmstrip making, or reading.	Re-teaching Allow a choice in psychological and physical learning preferences

Conclusion

Many teachers find the learning styles model hard to accept because they feel that accommodating all the variables is much too difficult a task. An important factor to remember is that any teacher who plans to undertake the implementation of a learning styles model should do so slowly - one step at a time (Dunn & Dunn, 1979). Start with one or two elements and gradually add other elements. However, student interest, motivation, and knowledge may be increased by using a variety of learning strategies in the elementary classroom. Effective teachers make use of activities which allow student choice in some activities and structure instruction to meet the learning needs of a broad range of students. A vast number of instructional techniques may be used in math and social studies to enhance learning. One excellent way to integrate a number of these activities is to use the teaching unit. There is no shortage of techniques which require little other than hard work to develop. The challenge for all of us in the rural schools of America is to use the knowledge we have and not become complacent followers of the text.

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DUBOIS-SPENCER-PERRY VOCATIONAL TRAINING GUIDE

The Dubois-Spencer-Perry Vocational Training Guide is a manual to be used by special eduction teachers as they provide vocational education for their students. The Guide resulted from a very practical need for consistency across individual school corporations, exceptionality areas and students' severity levels. This summary will discuss background, philosophy and contents of the Guide. With this information, special education teachers should be able to determine the Guide's applicability to their personal teaching situations and individual student needs.

Background

The Dubois-Spencer-Perry Exceptional Childrens' Co-op is located in Southern Indiana. The Co-op serves nine school corporations in a three-county area. Predominantly rural, the Co-op's largest "urban" area is Jasper, Indiana, a community of just under 10,000 according to 1990 census figures.

Vocational education for special eduction students has been inconsistently provided. This inconsistency has been the result of availability or lack of funding rather than interest or lack of on the part of co-op personnel. Recent and sustained effort to provide special vocational education has developed with the Co-op's involvement in Indiana University's L.R.E. (Least Restrictive Environment) Project. The L.R.E. Project focussed on supported employment and transition from school to work for severely involved individuals.

Not surprisingly, effects of this project for severely disabled students began to spread informally to other disabled populations in the Co-op. Students who were mildly disabled and emotionally handicapped began reaping program benefits by placement on job sites with job coaches. As this ripple effect grew, Co-op personnel began to discuss the need for consistency in vocational programming across programmatic areas. This need resulted in compilation of the D.S.P. Vocational Training Guide.

Philosophy

Philosophically and in all policy statements, the Dubois-Spencer-Perry Exceptional Childrens' Co-op subscribes to a belief in providing an appropriate education in the least restrictive environment appropriate for an individual student's needs. Therefore, special education students should be mainstreamed with their nondisabled peers to the maximum extent possible. In practice, this philosophy translates into scheduling special education students into regular vocational education classes wherever such classes are available, provided the students can function constructively in the class. Course descriptions are provided and materials are suggested for teachers who must provide vocational education in their special education classes.

Research

The D.S.P. Vocational Education Guide is not research based due to its origins in a very practically oriented and articulated need. Faculty in the Ohio Employability Skills project at Ohio State University permitted inclusion of their work in the following sections of the Guide: Career Education, Vocational Education, and Assessment .

Components

The contents of the Guide include the following:

- Background
- Philosophy
- Career Education
- Vocational Education
- Assessment
- Vocational Course Opportunities
- Suggested Materials
- Forms
- Transitional Policy and Procedures
- Staff Roles and Responsibilities
- Child Labor Provisions

Each section is letter-coded and individually numbered for eas eof use. For instance, Assessment pages are designated by A1 through A19. The information is intended to provide teachers with a how-to approach for special vocational education implementation.

Application

The Dubois-Spencer-Perry Vocational Training Guide can be used by novice or veteran special education teachers as they strive to provide the most appropriate education possible for their students. The Assessment , Materials , Forms , Staff Responsibilities , and Child Labor sections are especially practically oriented.

The _Guide_ could also be used by administrators as they develop a vocational program in their co-op/district. It applies equally to urban and rural areas, across categories of exceptionality, and across severity levels.

Copies of the _Guide_ may be purchased for the cost of duplication (approximately $15.00) from:

The Dubois-Spencer-Perry
Exceptional Childrens' Co-op
Rt 4 Box 705
Jasper, IN 47546
(812) 482-6661

NRSSC PRESENTATION

Presenter: Sharon M. West
Co-Presenter: Steven L. Smith
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

Sharon M. West
Elmer E. Rasmuson Library
University of Alaska Fairbanks
Fairbanks AK 99775

Steven L. Smith
Elmer E. Rasmuson Library
University of Alaska Fairbanks
Fairbanks AK 99775

Meeting the Information Needs of Rural Alaskan Students: A Strategy for Delivery

BACKGROUND

The University of Alaska Fairbanks (UAF) is the state's land-grant institution and foremost research center in the Alaska. Established in 1917, UAF was originally the state's sole institution of higher education. In the 1970's the decision was made to extend the higher education function to other locations through the establishment of university units in Juneau and Anchorage.

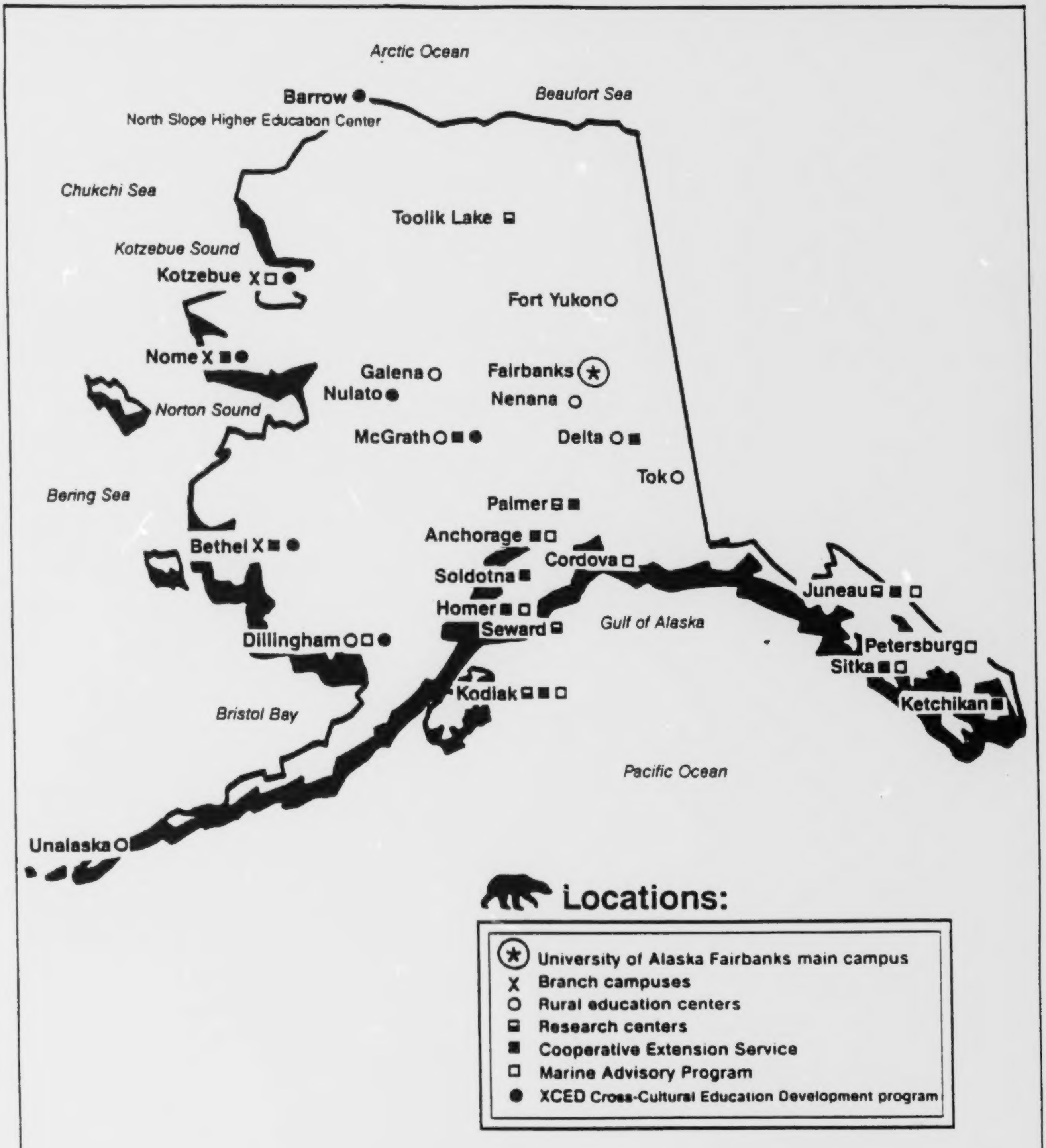
Additionally, the university added community college campuses in many places throughout Alaska. Each of these units had its own administrative structure and faculty. Each had its own curriculum and support services, including library services. Some campuses developed substantial libraries, such as the Kuskokwim Peninsula Community College in Bethel which had 25,000 volumes for a village of approximately 3,500 people.

In 1987, due to extreme budget reductions, the statewide university system radically restructured the university, eliminating as many administrative units as possible, yet retaining the instructional missions of these colleges. As part of this restructuring effort, UAF no longer was solely the residential campus in Fairbanks, it also became a statewide university unit with branch campuses, rural education centers, research centers, the sites of the Cooperative Extension Service, and the Marine Advisory Program. (See Map 1)

As can be seen from Map 1, UAF took over the branch campuses of Kotzebue, Nome, and Bethel. Many other sites became rural education centers, such as Dillingham, McGrath, and Galena. Other villages such as Barrow developed their own educational institutions, which through consortium arrangements, became part of UAF. When the reorganization was complete, the university had made the commitment to offer courses and locate faculty and staff throughout more than 500,000 square miles of the state, most of it in northern Alaska.

Unlike other extended campus programs offered in the lower 48 where there may be a gradual thinning of both population and available services from a core zone, there is an abrupt drop-off once one leaves the urban areas. Unlike other U.S. states where rural may mean cities with a population under 2,500 people, rural in Alaska means villages not located on any road system, with access only by air. Since Alaska only has 5,679 (3,003 unpaved; 2,676 paved) miles of roads, most of the students, faculty, and staff in extended UAF live in rural areas.

Obviously, these students usually do not attend class by commuting to Fairbanks or to one of the branch campus sites. Instead students pursue their


Arctic Ocean
Barrow
North Slope Higher Education Center
Beaufort Sea
Chukchi Sea
Toolik Lake
Kotzebue Sound
Kotzebue
Fort Yukon
Nome
Galena
Fairbanks
Nulato
Nenana
Norton Sound
McGrath
Delta
Tok
Bering Sea
Palmer
Anchorage
Bethel
Cordova
Soldotna
Juneau
Homer
Seward
Gulf of Alaska
Dillingham
Petersburg
Sitka
Kodiak
Ketchikan
Bristol Bay
Pacific Ocean
Unalaska
Locations:
University of Alaska Fairbanks main campus
Branch campuses
Rural education centers
Research centers
Cooperative Extension Service
Marine Advisory Program
XCED Cross-Cultural Education Development program

UNIVERSITY OF ALASKA FAIRBANKS

course work through audioconferencing, some very limited videoconferencing, computer conferencing, correspondence studies and itinerant instructors. From the fall semester of 1988 through the spring semester of 1990, there were 15,548 non-Fairbanks students enrolled in these courses. These students pursue degrees at all levels--associate, baccalaureate, and master's.

As mentioned above, some former community colleges had developed libraries prior to restructuring. These included Kuskokwim Campus in Bethel and the Northwest Campus in Nome. As restructuring took hold, the community and university campus of Kotzebue jointly formed a library for the Chukchi Campus. Barrow, which had never had a library, developed a library to support the North Slope Higher Education Center. Altogether these libraries held only approximately 40,000 volumes in 1988, of which 25,000 were in one library.

Students, faculty, and researchers have always required access to information. Our information age has continued to provide better--faster and more comprehensive--access to information. This is reflected in such technologies and services as on-line databases, CD-ROMs, and network gateways. At the same time that the breadth and depth of information access experiences tremendous growth, segments of the population are increasingly bypassed by the burgeoning information highways. As Wilde (1984) has pointed out, a major problem of rural degree programs has been the lack of information resources to support them. One of the aims of a university education is to teach students life-long learning skills--such as using information resources. Critics of extended graduate programs often argue that students do not utilize library resources (Dobson, 1985). These criticisms were certainly true of the library resources available to UAF extended campus students.

Most rural students live in villages with limited or no local library services and is largely Native American. For example, the Chukchi campus in Kotzebue serves a population of 6,000 people of whom 88 percent are Inupiaq Eskimo and other Alaska native groups. The Kuskokwim Campus serves approximately 4,000 people, many of whom still speak Yup'ik as their primary language and who retain their traditional cultural values (University of Alaska Catalog, 1989). For many of our students, their distance delivery courses may represent their first (and sometimes only) contact with higher education.

Alaska natives have traditionally relied upon oral tradition and often do not readily use libraries in their daily lives. Few students have a library available to them even if they do wish to use one. The rural students may not think of a "library" as a place to answer an information need or may be hesitant about approaching a library for assistance--especially one located in Fairbanks and available only via telecommunications.

PROBLEM DEFINITION AND OUTCOME

The problem thus faced by the Elmer E. Rasmuson Library in Fairbanks was two-fold: 1) How do we provide library services to students in rural Alaska; and, 2) How do we overcome their natural hesitancy about approaching a large academic library? In 1989, based upon a report of the faculty in the Rasmuson Library (Smith, 1988), the library instituted the Extended Campus Services (ECS) unit. It was created to meet four levels of patron information needs:

1. Student pursuing undergraduate degrees at a distance;

2. Graduate students, faculty, and researchers working at points remote from any research library;

3. Nondegree students taking courses at a distance;

4. Specific patron groups throughout the state needing access to government information or the general and special collections at the Rasmuson library.

The first problem to be solved was communication between the student and the library in Fairbanks. There already existed in Alaska several statewide data networks: a university computer network, a commercial data network with access available from many of the state's villages, and a state government administrative network. To take advantage of these networks, the library established two mail boxes on the University of Alaska Computer Network (UACN): a mailbox where students could request books and periodical articles on interlibrary loan; and, a reference mailbox where students could pose questions and have them answered.

Next, the Rasmuson Library instituted a 800 free toll number for the state so that any student could call the library free of charge. This was an important factor since most students live in areas of economic underdevelopment in a cash-poor society. We initially placed voice mail on the 800 number.

Publicity was an important factor since most students and faculty were initially unaware of any extended library services. A flyer was developed and distributed to all faculty who were headquartered offcampus. Flyers were also distributed to the branch campuses.

We knew that the key to student use of our service was faculty involvement so we met with each group of rural faculty as they came to Fairbanks for orientation. We also sent a faculty member from the Rasmuson Library to each branch campus at least once a year for consultation and input review sessions. These faculty have included the Coordinator of Technical Services, the Collection Development Officer, and the Director of Libraries. It is the intent that all library faculty will visit each branch campus at least once. The purpose is two-fold: 1) to show the commitment of the Rasmuson Library to the rural educational mission; and 2) to learn from our rural colleagues and students the problems and needs they face on a daily basis.

If faculty and students need information resources, they contact us via electronic mailbox or via the 800 telephone number. A staff member who has been trained in interview techniques takes the request, transcribes it onto a form and sends it to the reference librarian. If possible to do so, the reference librarian conducts the library research, selects the materials, and passes the information to the interlibrary loan office. The interlibrary loan office retrieves the materials, photocopies it if necessary, processes the necessary paperwork and sends out the materials to the student. The stated goal for turnaround time from receipt of request to mail pickup is 48 hours.

Originally all material was sent out from Fairbanks via first-class priority mail (which in Alaska is the same as airmail). We did try to electronically scan and digitize some periodical articles and pump them over the University of Alaska Computer Network (UACN), but found it presented some major technical problems and was too time consuming. In 1990, as facsimile machines became ubiquitous in Alaska, we added a facsimile machine to our unit and started faxing materials to the rural areas.

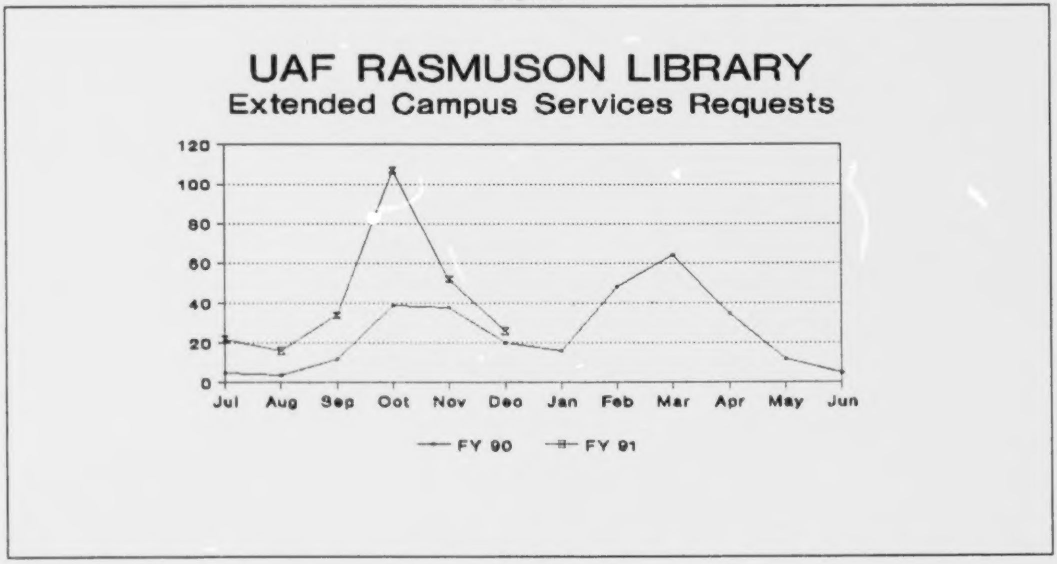
RESULTS

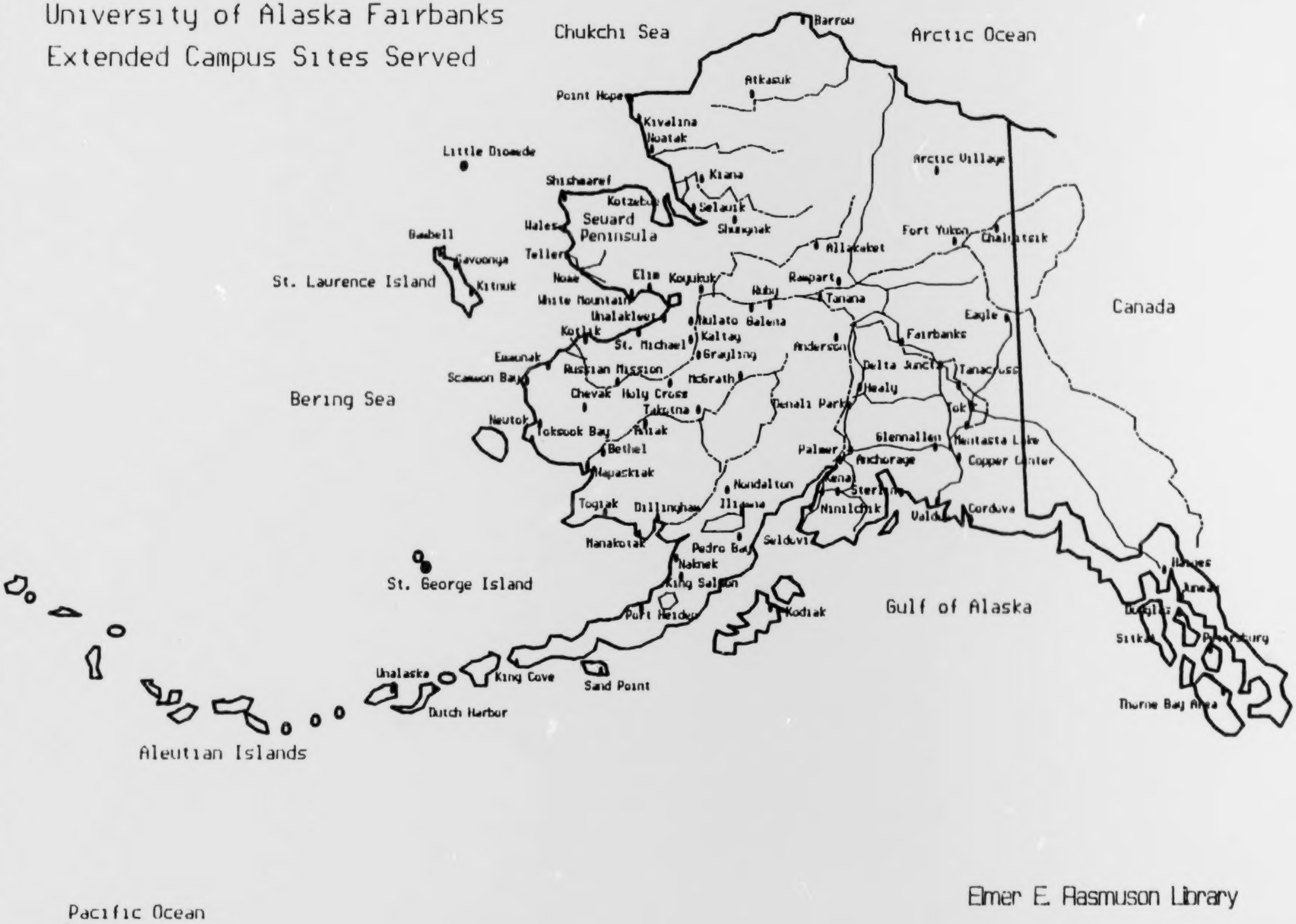
The results have been beyond our expectations. We assumed that the demand for the service would be varied but relatively low in number since the libraries in Nome, Kotzebue and Bethel would provide library service to their students directly. From Fall 1989 through December 1990, we answered 586 information requests which came from 90 Alaskan villages and towns. Map 2 shows the geographic location of the villages and towns served; the map illustrates that our services are being delivered virtually to the entire state of Alaska. It should be noted that each of the 586 requests represents between 1.5 and 2 hours of library faculty/staff work each. To fill 586 requests took between 879 to 1,172 hours of staff time.

During this time period, we had an enrollment of 8,087 students in rural Alaska, giving us a 7.2% use rate. While this rate may seem low, a factor which must be considered is that 31% of these students were taking vocational, developmental, and non-credit courses which typically do not require the use of information resources.

More interesting has been the increasing degree of use. In fall, 1989, 5.6% of all students used Extended Campus Services. In Spring, 1990, 6.4% of all students used the service and in Fall, 1990, 9.5% of all students used the service. Figure 1 shows the increasing use of Extended Campus Services for the period indicated.

FIGURE 1





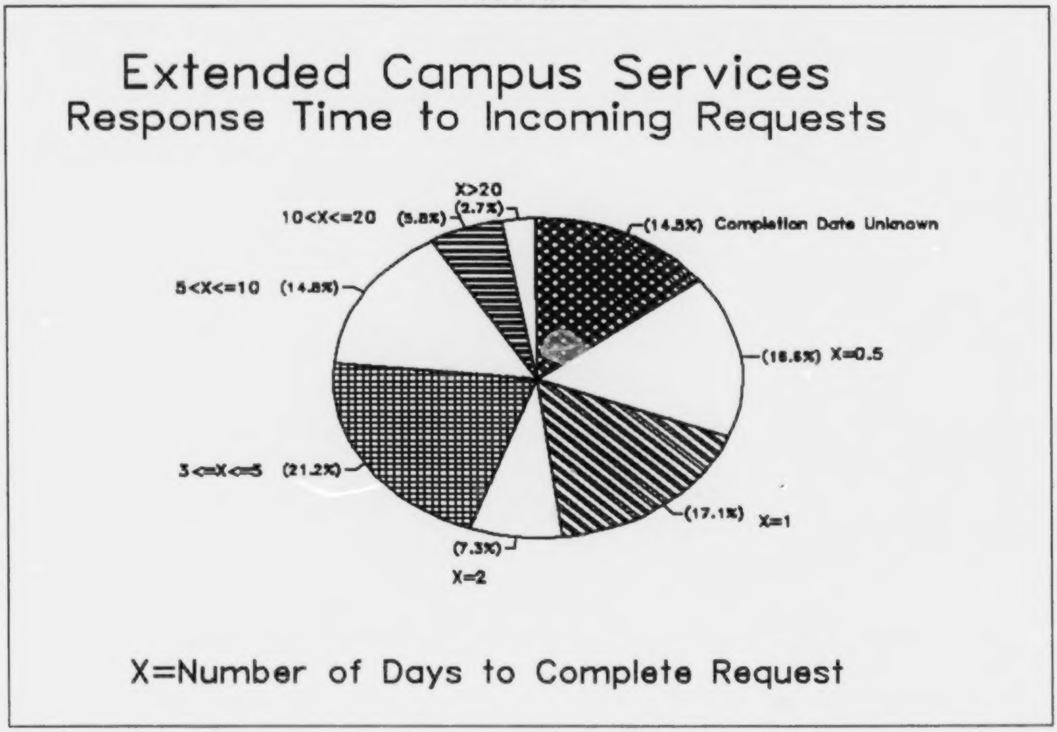
University of Alaska Fairbanks
Extended Campus Sites Served

Chukchi Sea
Barrow
Arctic Ocean
Atkasuk
Point Hope
Kivalina
Noatak
Little Diomede
Arctic Village
Kiana
Shishmaref
Kotzebue
Selawik
Shungnak
Wales
Seuard Peninsula
Gambell
Savoonga
Teller
Fort Yukon
Chalkyitsik
Allakaket
St. Laurence Island
Kitnuk
Nome
Elim
Koyukuk
Rampart
Ruby
Tanana
White Mountain
Canada
Unalakleet
Nulato
Galena
Eagle
Kotlik
Kaltag
Fairbanks
St. Michael
Grayling
Anderson
Emmonak
Russian Mission
Delta Junction
Tanacross
Scammon Bay
McGrath
Holy Cross
Healy
Chevak
Bering Sea
Takotna
Denali Park
Tok
Neutok
Aniak
Toksook Bay
Glennallen
Mentasta Lake
Bethel
Palmer
Anchorage
Copper Center
Napaskiak
Kenai
Nondalton
Sterling
Togiak
Dillingham
Iliamna
Ninilchik
Valdez
Cordova
Manokotak
Pedro Bay
Seldovia
Naknek
St. George Island
King Salmon
Haines
Juneau
Kodiak
Gulf of Alaska
Port Heiden
Douglas
Sitka
Petersburg
Unalaska
King Cove
Sand Point
Dutch Harbor
Thorne Bay Area
Aleutian Islands
Pacific Ocean

Elmer E. Rasmuson Library

The stated goal for turnaround time was 48 hours. Figure 2 shows the results. 85 requests had inadequate data kept on them so that the completion date is unknown. 16.5% of the requests were filled the same day received; 17% were filled within 24 hours; and 7.3% were filled within 48 hours--for a total fill rate of 40.8% within 48 hours.

FIGURE 2



We found that, if a request was not filled within 48 hours, it tended to take much longer to complete. This was usually due to the complexity of the request. Additionally, as the number of requests continue to increase, response time is beginning to lag. Without additional resources, during high use periods, turnaround in 48 hours is becoming increasingly difficult to achieve.

A slightly greater number of students than faculty used Extended Campus Services (Figure 3).

FIGURE 3

115	Faculty Participants
111	Staff Participants
308	Student Participants
24	Other Participants
28	Unknown
586	Total # of Participants

However, when examined by gender, a much greater number of students using ECS were female (Figure 4). This corresponds to the enrollment patterns of rural Alaska wherein a much greater percentage of students were female.

FIGURE 4

24	Female/Faculty Participants
91	Male/Faculty Participants
72	Female/Staff Participants
39	Male/Staff Participants
219	Female/Student Participants
83	Male/Student Participants
17	Female/Other Participants
6	Male/Other Participants
12	Female/Unknown Participants
13	Male/Unknown Participants
10	Unknown Gender Participants
586	Total # of Participants

CONCLUSION

As stated above, we realized from the beginning that clear, rapid communication between the library and ECS user was paramount. Using voice mail on the 800 toll free number was counter-productive to that goal. Hang-ups were numerous with voice mail and messages left were few. Very shortly after the institution of ECS, we eliminated voice mail in favor of staff answering the telephone.

Staff performing this function were given interview training to assist them in being responsive and sensitive to the needs of the ECS users. An emphasis was also given to getting the most complete information possible as to what the requestor really wanted us to supply to them.

The computer mailboxes, both interlibrary loan and the reference box, are very little used. Almost 95% of all requests for ECS service are received via the 800 toll free number. Many of the individuals calling in want to speak with the librarian personally and leave a message for a callback.

Experience has shown that, in most cases, a callback by the librarian before beginning work on the request saves time in the filling of the request and also improves the level of satisfaction expressed by the ECS user when receiving the materials. Personal expressions of thanks and appreciation are often received by the ECS from rural students.

We found that interpersonal contact was vital to the success of ECS. Nonuse of electronic means of communication was not due to students not being able to use the technology; many of them use a computer and modems to communicate with their instructors. The University of Alaska's on-line catalog, *Gnosis*, is available to students via three data networks with a local telephone call, yet few students have used it to identify materials before calling ECS. Students perceive that their needs are being better met when they can personally communicate them to the Rasmuson Library staff.

We also instituted a procedure whereby the ECS project officer would periodically call rural faculty and solicit their feedback on the performance of the library. We found that students would comment to their instructors if unhappy or dissatisfied with library service but would not communicate this back to the ECS staff. Rural faculty were willing and helpful in providing constructive feedback to us for improvement of services.

We began using fax extensively when we realized that the technology was so widespread in rural areas and that it was extremely sturdy. Almost every village has at least one fax--usually in the school or in the village grocery store. Noneducational and businesses institutions have been very generous in allowing students to receive fax from us on their fax machines.

There are some technical problems to be overcome. The quality of telephone lines is so poor that we often must send materials at a much reduced speed substantially increasing the amount of time needed to fax the material and thus increasing our costs. Fax machines in the village must often share the line with other uses; getting the receiver to hook the fax up to the line and to leave it on the line long enough for the transmission has sometimes been a challenge. However, when the mail plane has not gotten in for 2 weeks due to poor weather, fax is a very viable alternative. We have found that, in the majority of cases, 1st class mail has been adequate to meet the needs of the users.

We continue to receive strong support of the ECS from the rural faculty and students. We continue to work with faculty to increase the percentage of students utilizing the ECS. We are beginning the installation of an array of technological solutions (networking, etc.) to assist the student in the identification of information. Since we are know from our experience to date that students and faculty will not readily use the technology available to them, we are planning to send librarians to the rural users to assist them in using the technology. We believe some face-to-face training on using *Gnosis* and our on-line periodical indexes will make their use more palatable to students.

Beginning in fall, 1991, we will be teaching a course via distance delivery to teach information seeking skills to rural students. The course will assume that most students do not have local access to a library. A major objective of the course will be to make students comfortable with using telecommunications to access the electronic library.

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*The authors gratefully acknowledge the assistance of graduate assistant Crystal Goula in the preparation of this paper.

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Randall V. Bass
Co-Presenter: Jo Ann F. Bass
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 4:00pm - 5:00pm

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Meeting the Needs of At-Risk Students: Youth Opportunities Unlimited

Introduction

Youth Opportunities Unlimited (Y.O.U.) is a program aimed at preventing school dropout among low income students who have been identified as being at risk of dropping out of high school. Y.O.U. had its beginnings in a program first implemented at St. Edward's University in Austin, Texas in 1972. The program there originally targeted college freshmen from families of migrant and seasonal farm workers. A similar project began for high school students. The program spread to other campuses in Texas, and eventually to several other states.

In Arkansas, Y.O.U. began at Henderson State University in 1988. Its first year at Arkansas State University was 1989. The number of participants in Arkansas has grown from 50 in 1988 to over 400 in 1990. Another increase in numbers is expected in 1991.

The intent of the Y.O.U. program is to allow students to discover that they can be successful in life and to give them a sense of accomplishment. Y.O.U. affords participants the opportunity to work 20 hours a week on campus and to earn one semester credit in English and mathematics. In addition, participants receive medical and dental examinations and instruction in study skills, health, and computer literacy. Tutoring is provided to students who need it. Students are taken on field trips on the weekends.

Funding of the Program

Y.O.U. operates on funds from the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA). The universities that conduct the program contract with the Service Delivery Areas which administer JTPA funds. The current funding formula in Arkansas calls for $3250 for each student enrolled in the program. This amount covers room, board, tuition, and wages paid to the student for work done while in the program. Provision is made in the contract for the refund of money not used for room, board, and wages for students who leave the program early.

Selection of Participants

The Y.O.U. target population is those economically disadvantaged 14- and 15-year-olds who are enrolled in school on grade level, but due to academic, environmental, or motivational factors, have been identified as being likely to drop out of school prior to graduation from high school. Y.O.U. is not intended to be a panacea for all ills affecting students in this age group. Experience has indicated that students in several categories usually do not gain maximum benefit from participation in the program. These include students with learning disabilities, those with significant behavior disorders, those who are emotionally disturbed, those in special education, and students in gifted and talented programs. Students from gifted and talented programs usually do not benefit from the academic program of Y.O.U. Students from the other groups generally are not ready for the increased responsibility and independence that participation in the program demands.

Students are recruited by the representatives of the Service Delivery Agencies that administer JTPA funds. They work with school counselors, teachers, and administrators to identify students who meet the age, grade, and at-risk qualifications. Those students who are selected for Y.O.U. must also meet family income limitations.

After a sufficient number of qualified potential participants have been selected, an orientation session is held. A representative of the institution conducting the program meets with the students and their parents. In this meeting, participants are told what they can expect from the program, and what the program expects from them. A number of forms are filled out, such as parental permission for the student to participate, medical information, and authorization for medical treatment in case of an emergency.

Characteristics of Participants

The participants in the Y.O.U. program at Arkansas State University in 1990 had the following characteristics:

33 had family incomes of less than $5,000.
11 had family incomes of $5,000 - 7,500.
25 had family incomes of $7,501 - 10.000.
7 had family incomes of $10,001 - 15,000.
6 had family incomes of over $15,000.
44 came from single parent households.
41 had a different surname from custodial parent or guardian.
29 were African-Americans.
54 were Caucasians.
7 came from families of two members.
18 came from families of three members.
18 came from families of four members.
22 came from families of five members.

9 came from families of six members.
8 came from families of seven members.
4 came from families of seven members.
4 came from families of eight members.

Residential Component

For participants in the program, Y.O.U. is 60 days long. All participants go to a location that is at least 50 miles from their homes. This practice discourages friends and family members from dropping in to visit at times when the students are supposed to be involved in program activities. Except in emergencies, students do not go home during the program. They live in campus residence halls where they are under much more strict supervision than college students would be.

The daily schedule for students is quite demanding. They leave their rooms at 7:00 a.m. and return at 8:30 p.m. Between these times, students go to classes, work, go to tutoring sessions, have instruction in job-related skills, study skills, computer literacy, and participate in recreation. Saturdays are usually spent on recreational or educational field trips. Sundays are only a little quieter, with those who wish to do so going to church, getting laundry done, and having recreation in the afternoon. The evening meal on Sunday is frequently a cookout or a pizza party.

Academic Component

Great efforts are made to keep the academic program from being like the typical school that the students just left. Emphasis is placed on participation in classes and on keeping the classes small to allow much interaction between the students and the teacher. The English and mathematics classes ranged in size from eight to 13 students, and an aide assisted each teacher.

As a measure of the academic effectiveness of the program, students are given the Metropolitan Achievement Test at the beginning and at the end of the program. In 1990, students in the program had mean gains on the MAT-6 of 1.12 years in reading, .96 years in language, .9 years in mathematics, and 1.21 years on the total battery.

The curriculum for the math and English classes was based on the ninth and tenth grade curriculum guides of the Arkansas State Board of Education. All of the professional staff members in the instructional program held Arkansas teacher certification in their respective teaching areas.

The English curriculum focused on the use of basic skills such as grammar, reference skills, vocabulary, reading, writing, spelling, and oral communication. Whenever possible, these skills were taught in an applied context rather than as isolated topics to be learned separately.

The math curriculum also emphasized application over rote memorization in isolation. The primary focus was on understanding and applying mathematical concepts through problem solving techniques, data handling, geometry, and the use of algebraic formulae to solve problems.

Study skills instruction was also provided to all students. Motivation, time management, note-taking, and test preparation techniques, as well as other topics, were discussed in these classes. Students also received instruction in health, nutrition, and sex education. Instruction emphasized topics such as personal hygiene, safety and first aid, substance and drug abuse, the relationship between health and nutrition, the physiology of reproduction, and abstinence as a form of birth control.

Work Experience

Students work in jobs on campus 20 hours each week. Typical jobs include office work, working in the theater scene shop, working in the vending department, and working in the university museum. Because of child labor laws, participants cannot work in jobs which would require them to operate machinery or to engage in other activities which could be dangerous. One staff member, called the Job Developer, is responsible for finding jobs for all students, for keeping records of time worked, and for monitoring job performance. The job developer also serves as a liaison between the Y.O.U. program and the job site supervisors. Before students begin work, the job developer contacts the job site supervisors to ascertain the number of students needed at each site, to inform the supervisors of the requirements of the program, and to explain the reporting and evaluation procedures. Students earn the federal minimum wage rate for their work. They are not, however, paid all of their wages each week. They receive a check for $20 every Friday. The remainder of their earnings goes into a safe-keeping account. A few weeks after the program is over, participants receive a check for the balance of their summer earnings.

Job Club

Each day, students attend a session called Job Club. A number of activities take place in Job Club. Students are given instruction in job etiquette, the importance of being prompt and dependable on the job, the necessity of performing duties adequately, and the satisfaction of doing a job well. They also receive instruction in money management and budgeting. Speakers from many different professions are invited to tell the students about their jobs, how they got where they are now, and obstacles they had to overcome to reach this point in their careers. Extra effort is expended to get speakers whose backgrounds are similar to those of the students in the program. This portion of the program seems to be particularly effective in getting students to see that having few advantages growing up does not condemn one to a life of poverty.

Health Care

Many of the students in the program have received minimal health care throughout their lives. One aspect of Y.O.U. tries to ameliorate this situation. When they arrive on campus, students receive a physical examination and have their teeth checked and cleaned. Conditions detected in these examinations are treated whenever possible. Although the Y.O.U. program does not pay for the treatment, every effort is made to keep the cost to the student at a minimum. Medicaid is used for those students who qualify. The Lions Club has been very helpful in providing glasses for students who need them. Dental costs have been very low since the dentist who does the examinations has donated his services for all follow-up treatments. Insurance is carried on each participant to cover injuries and illnesses which may occur during the time they are on campus. The purpose of the health care program is two-fold. First, students who are in good health can participate fully in the program and gain the maximum benefits of the program. Second, this care, coupled with the health instruction, may make students more inclined to take better care of themselves and thereby enable themselves to lead more productive and satisfying lives.

Counseling

The intent of the counseling component of Y.O.U. is to provide each individual with a positive self-concept, realistic career plans, and effective communication skills. The counseling program is staffed by a master counselor, who holds Arkansas school counselor certification, and by the residence hall staff. The master counselor was responsible for administering the Mat-6 and other assessment instruments that were used over the course of the program. A personality profile, a self-esteem inventory, and a learning style inventory were administered to the students when they arrived at the beginning of the program. The personality profile and the self-esteem inventory were administered a second time near the end of the program. A comparison of the results of the two administrations of the personality profile indicated that there were fewer extreme traits the second time, indicating that the students had more stable characteristics after being in the program for several weeks. The self-esteem inventory also showed positive results the second time it was given. The mean raw scores of the students increased several percentage points in general self-esteem, social self-esteem, and in personal self-esteem. These results also indicated that the defensiveness of the students had decreased during the course of the program.

The master counselor met with each student at least once for a get-acquainted session. Other sessions were held when students were referred to the counselor by the staff or students could request to see the counselor. The master counselor also worked extensively with the residence hall staff to better prepare them to handle such topics as crisis counseling, dealing with anger and loneliness, and basic counseling procedures. The master counselor also met with the staff regularly to discuss administrative, staff, and student issues.

Another duty of the master counselor was to assist students in formulating career goals. Obviously, the goals established by students at this level have to be very tentative, but any goal gives the student something to work for, rather than wandering aimlessly through (or out of) school. The master counselor used individual sessions, small group meetings, and the Job Club to work toward this goal.

Recreation

The goals of the recreational component of the Y.O.U. program were to improve the physical fitness level of the students, to teach students recreational skills which could be used throughout their lives, and to teach students the value of recreation as a means of combating stress in daily life. Each evening the recreation director, the assistant recreation director, and the residence hall staff led the students in various recreational activities, ranging from modeling to weightlifting. Other activities included swimming, track and field, volleyball, basketball, pickleball, and racquetball. The recreational program also served as an outlet for the excess energy that is commonly seen in this age group.

Weekend Trips

Weekend field trips had an educational purpose and a recreational purpose. While each trip was classified as one type or the other, all of them obviously served both purposes. Field trips are always recreational, in the sense that they furnish a change of scene and provide a diversion from one's ordinary daily activities. They are also educational in the sense that they expand one's horizons and allow for new experiences. This aspect of the field trips was very important for the students in this program. Many of them had never been to a large city before. While in this program, they went to Memphis three times and to St. Louis once. Many saw their first museum and their first zoo. They also had the experience of two theme parks and a major league baseball game. A tour of a cave and a reconstructed Indian village were included in the itinerary as well. The weekend trip component of the program may well be one of its more important facets. It provides students with the realization that they live in a very large world and their possibilities are not limited to the tiny portion of that world that they have seen. Perhaps equally important, it allows them to see other places as they really are, not just as idealized images where everything is perfect.

Follow-up

The final component of the Y.O.U. program is ongoing. Each student who completes the program is followed though high school. Students receive periodic newsletters and encouragement to stay in school. Their grades are reported to the follow-up coordinator each semester. They know that the program staff still cares about them. The staff, too, carries on its own unofficial follow-up. Letters and cards are exchanged between students and staff members. Of course, one of the purposes of the follow-up program is to evaluate the effectiveness of the program. Although exact figures are not available for all students in the program at this point, preliminary data indicate that the program has been very successful. For example, of the students who completed the program at Arkansas State University in 1989, all were still in school one year later. The real test, of course, will come this year and next. One of the biggest challenges for the follow-up program is the mobility of the students and their families. Some students have had two or three changes of address since August. It is very difficult to keep track of these students, especially when their parents, for whatever reason, choose not to leave forwarding addresses.

Conclusion

The Youth Opportunities Unlimited program at Arkansas State University appears to be a huge success. Only time will tell if this proves to be true in the long run. The ultimate evaluation will be the high school graduation rate of the participants and their achievements afterwards.

The objective evaluation data which are available at this point look very good. The academic performance as indicated by the MAT-6 scores is nothing short of phenomenal. It is also encouraging that more basic characteristics such as self-esteem can be positively affected in a short period of time. Subjectively, the change in attitude of some of the students is incredible.

There are several reasons for these changes. First, the students are removed from home situations that are often impoverished and dehumanizing. Once they are in the program, they have their basic health needs met, and they receive three balanced meals every day. The staff members have been selected because they are people who care about the students and staff training emphasizes treating students with respect. The staff has also been trained to expect a great deal from the students. It has been well established that students generally live up to the expectations of their teachers and others who are important in their lives. The staff members have great expectations of the students, and the students deliver on these expectations.

The one reservation which some leaders in the program hold concerns the time that students actually spend in the program. Does a program of eight weeks' duration prior to a student's freshman or sophomore year in high school have a large enough impact to keep the student in school until graduation? In some cases, the answer is no. In other cases, the program is a foundation which can be built upon by teachers and other school officials, by concerned parents, and by peers. The program can be the straw that tips the balance in favor of finishing school for some students.

Another component of the Y.O.U. program is Y.O.U. II. This program brings students back to a college campus for a second summer for more intensive study and it has a strong emphasis on service projects. Y.O.U. II was piloted at Henderson State University in 1990, and was deemed to be quite successful. Henderson State is continuing this program in 1991. If it proves to be as successful this year as it was in the first trial, it may be expanded to other campuses in the future.

Is Y.O.U. worth the effort and the cost? The authors believe that it is.

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Carol J. Templeton
Co-Presenter: Raymond Paden
Day: March 20, 1991
Time: 4:00pm - 5:00pm

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Enhancing Curriculum Through Technology in the Rural School

"OHAYOO-GOZAI-MASU. WATASHI-WA ALBERT MOORE - DESU: AMERIKA-JIN DESU: KOOKED SAN-NENSEE - DESU."

With that introduction one of our seniors, Albert Moore, disrupted a U.S. Senate hearing on satellite learning programs. All the while the stenographer was frantically waving her arms. Senator Cochran told her not to worry about translating the Japanese because Albert had submitted a written copy of his testimony. By becoming one of the pilot schools in the STAR program (distance learning program), our students have had the opportunity to take courses such as Japanese and Statistics . Albert was a minority student and had never been out of the state. If not for distance learning, he would never have had this opportunity.

This is but one way technology has helped us to improve the quality of education in our rural school. Who would have thought even five years ago that a high school with less than 150 students could now offer Japanese I and II, Russian, and Probability and Statistics at all, much less economically.

The explosion of technology can be a boon or "bust" to rural or small school districts.

Hickey (1969) pointed to the principal areas of weakness of small school districts substantiated by considerable research and summarized in an ERIC document as follows:

1. Inadequacy of curriculum

2. Inability to draw and hold high-quality teachers and administrators; inefficient use of available staff.

3. Economic inefficiencies in terms of high per pupil expenditures for the quality of program provided.

4. Inequality of effort required for support.

5. Absences of specialized services.

Twenty years later we still suffer from the same criticism. Yet, with the technology available today we are limited only by our imagination to see technology as an ally to solve perplexing problems of small schools and to combat our critics. What educational technology does require is time, resources and creativity. Adapting the tools of technology to the field of education in a rural setting is not easy. There are many barriers to overcome such as beliefs, expectations and attitudes of educators, patrons, and parents who believe in the three R's of reading, writing, and arithmetic, the lack of training in the applications and forms of assistance that technology offers, and time for an already overworked staff to become comfortable with the use of technology. These and other barriers impede progress and help foster the view that planning, curriculum, and instruction are relatively static. But with time in short supply, legislators cutting budgets, and increased record keeping requirements by state and federal agencies, how can we find time to review, revise, and expand curriculum offerings? How can we afford the costs of additional staff and equipment to expand? And what kind of results can we expect?

How can technology provide time for administrators and teachers to learn and develop necessary skills to deal with technology and carry on their daily tasks? Technology in and of itself is the answer. Today's technology literally teaches its applications. In other words, many of the programs on the market train personnel with a tutorial guide eliminating the need for formal intensive in-service training. Not only can they teach applications but they can make more efficient use of existing personnel. For example, in a matter of minutes you can generate multiple versions of a school's master schedule for a year, examining all facets of the scheduling, such as classes, differing time blocks, and courses offered. School personnel need to experience the benefits of technology, just as the above example illustrates what an administrator can accomplish. Think of the benefits to teachers in day-to-day operations. Take, for example, the number of times students' names and grades are recorded during the school year. This enormous task is virtually eliminated with technology. The amount of time required to gain a low level of proficiency with computer technology and applications will return at least tenfold on reports that require a considerable amount of time to compile. The freedom to rearrange information to meet everyday needs is endless. And rather than give a general impression of things such as discipline to parents on a report card or at faculty meetings, you can present them with fully substantiated facts.

Fully intergrating computers with other technology will also expand the curriculum. New systems with a CD ROM player can bring alive a classroom simulation to help students understand and see concepts taught. Interactive Long Distance learning can fill the void of specialized classes at an economical cost and provide a quality program that occurs in more affluent school districts which have the student population to draw and hold high-quality specialized teachers. A CD ROM player containing a set of encyclopedias can replace 20 hard copies. As we look at all of this, we must keep in mind that the benefits will always outweigh the burden of technology.

Second, the cost of technology when examined as an additional one time outlay seems steep. But when you compare the cost of replacing traditional materials with traditional materials, the cost of the output per man hour and the results we get, it becomes less expensive than we think. For example, this last year when scheduling students we found that rather than transporting students to a vocational center twice a day, our scheduling program in fifteen minutes showed us that we could serve more students by transporting them only once a day. This saved the district in excess of $5000.00 or the cost of five microcomputers, or the already mentioned example, of replacing encyclopedias to meet requirements set in our state, the school would have to purchase at least one set of encyclopedias yearly to maintain a set of up-to-date books. This cost alone translates into enough money to purchase a CD ROM player. In other words, you need to think how technology can improve instruction while replacing things we have traditionally bought.

In addition, you need to look for alternative sources of funding such as grants, PTO's, and business-school partnerships. It is true. If you don't write any grants, then you can 't get turned down. However, the opposite is also true. If you don't write any grants, then you can never get one. PTO's are excellent ways to raise funds in small districts, but PTO's expect to see results. For example, we asked our PTO to buy $400.00 worth of mats for a gymnastics class and the P.E. teacher built a vaulting box. At the end of the year, he had the students put on a show at a PTO meeting. The resulting effect was the next year they bought $4000.00 worth of gymnastics equipment. The same is true with technology. Unless they see results from what they buy, then they will not realize any value for the money they have raised. So whatever you do, let parents see results. If it is computer equipment, then have students carry home work done on the computer. For example, in our school we have successfully implemented the Writing To Read program for K-4 students. Using this program, all students (including SPED) are given 40 minutes of hands-on computer instruction daily. Kindergarten and first grade students use inventive spelling to create stories in their own language. To let parents see the results of this program, we use NCR paper just so we can keep copies of work and send home copies of work done by students. Businesses can also be of tremendous help, not only monetarily, but many times they will donate equipment and materials to assist in fund raisers and other types of support. As for locating grants that are available, there are several different ways, such as commercially prepared resources, mailouts that are received periodically, or if a university is near, most of them have access to a data bank which can locate grant money. Just remember, the fear of being turned down should never stop you from trying.

Last, what kind of resistance can you expect from change? What kind of results can you expect in student performance, and how do we communicate this to people who are helping us.? Too many times I have heard, "well that's not the way I learned." or "where is my child's grade?"

Results and communication of results have to be done both formally and informally. In the case of our WTR Lab, we emphasize students' work. If the students do a banner, we make sure parents realize where it came from. There is no better proof of a program's success than being able to point out to a parent that a child is using words like "comfortable" and "reflection" in their writing in first grade, or in newspaper articles on a child taking Japanese in your school. And sometimes a more formal approach is needed. The following is a brief summary of the results we obtained when we began implementing the NCTM (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics) standards.

NCTM has proposed major reforms for the mathematics curriculum in our nation's schools. Our students, in the past and at the present, spend a majority of their mathematics classtime doing menial calculations and memorizing fact tables and very little time working on real life problems of application. In our world today, where technology is outdating itself by the time it is printed, we need our students to be able to do more than regurgitate facts. They need to know these facts, but more emphasis needs to be placed on the applications of mathematics. Without an understanding of the science of mathematics there will be no place for our students in the technological world that we are producing. The new goals not only reflect the importance of content but a need for children to learn to value mathematics and become confident in their ability to do mathematics.

The Mathematics programs in elementary schools have not changed in the past 50 years. The content as well as the methods for teaching math need to be updated. Teachers need to experience inservice programs for incorporating the use of calculators, computers, and manipulatives into their classrooms.

The traditional approach to curriculum development in mathematics is based on a rigid non-flexible structure and not on how children learn. The basic skills that students need to learn in a technological world are very different from those skills that are emphasized in today's textbooks. According to Elizabeth D. Bjork and Mark Driscoll (1988), "the most robust model for future mathematics instruction appears to be a teacher-student-technology triangle, in which students use calculators and software and teachers encourage, model, monitor, guide, and evaluate student investigation."

NCTM recommends the integration of the calculator into the school mathematics program at all grade levels in classwork, homework, and evaluation. Although extensively used in society, calculators are used far less in schools, where they could free large amounts of the time that students currently spend practicing computations. The time gained should be spent helping students to understand mathematics, to develop reasoning, and problem solving strategies, and to use and apply mathematics.

According to Hoffman (1988), the value of effective use of models and manipulatives to affect and enhance the learning of mathematics at all levels cannot be overstated. Exploring ideas, developing understanding, and verifying results are all vital parts of the learning process. He further stated that pupils need much more than pencil and paper activities to achieve success in mathematics. The use of models and manipulatives cannot be ignored if maximum results are to be achieved.

"Studies have documented the negative effects of math anxiety on math performance and achievement." (Richardson and Swinn, 1972)

Our study group involved all the math students of our rural school in grades one through twelve. The socioeconomic status of the group was middle class to very low class. The racial background was comprised of approximately 60 percent white and 40 percent black with less then 1 percent from all other ethnic groups involved. The educational level of the study group's parents was very low; many of the parents did not graduate from high school and very few graduated from college. Most of the parents work in local furniture factories, some work on local farms and a few own their own farms or businesses.

A one group pretest-posttest was used in the study and the data analysis was completed using a correlated t-test for student achievement, an independent t-test for student attitudes, and a goodness of fit test for parental attitudes.

The students in the control group taking the pretest during the 87-88 school year were taught mathematics in a traditional classroom setting using the traditional lecture, discussion, and demonstration methods of teaching. The primary focus of the instruction was on the development of computational skills through rote memorization and drill sheets contained in workbooks.

The experimental group taking the posttest during the 88-89 school year received traditional classroom teaching but instruction was enhanced by the addition of calculators. Emphasis on basic facts was still emphasized but a greater emphasis was placed on learning to use the calculator to enhance computational skills to allow more time to work on problem solving ability and the application of mathematics to real situations and the use of manipulatives for understanding mathematics.

No workbooks full of drill sheets were used; these were replaced by the calculator and manipulatives.

The students involved in this study were given the attitudinal scale at the beginning of the school year. Then all students were taught math with the aid of manipulatives and calculators until the beginning of the fifth grading period. At this time, the students were again given the same math attitudinal scale. The results from the pretest and posttest were then evaluated using an independent t-test.

The parents were asked to complete a math survey form at the beginning of school and again at the end of the school year. These results were compared using a chi-square goodness of fit test.

As can be seen in table 1 there was a significant difference between the means of the pretest and the posttest in total mathematics achievement scores in all grades tested whether the students were allowed to use calculators or not.

TABLE 1

Comparison of Pretest and Posttest Scores for Total Mathematics

GRADE	PRETEST 88			POSTTEST 89			
	N	X	SD	N	X	SD	t-value
1**	30	471.60	49.32	30	524.13	38.13	7.60*
3**	25	591.38	31.37	25	630.27	43.03	7.71*
4	36	623.42	37.86	36	638.83	34.11	3.48*
5**	26	646.58	35.92	26	667.50	23.48	4.13*
6	34	663.65	30.94	34	670.59	37.79	3.18*

** Students allowed to use calculators
* Significant at the .05 level

As can be seen in table 2 there was a significant difference between the means of the pretest and the posttest in computation mathematics achievement scores in grades 3 and 5 where students were allowed to use calculators.

TABLE 2

Comparison of Pretest and Posttest Scores for Computation Mathematics

GRADE	PRETEST 88			POSTTEST 89			
	N	X	SD	N	X	SD	t-value
3**	25	615.15	44.71	25	670.88	48.67	6.81*
4	36	628.14	48.62	36	640.08	35.39	1.86
5**	26	676.88	46.21	26	710.10	42.18	3.53*
6	34	679.65	39.93	34	685.71	51.07	.87

** Students allowed to use calculators

* Significant at the .05 level

As can be seen in table 3 there was a significant difference between the means of the pretest and the posttest in number concepts mathematics achievement scores in grades 3 and 5 where students were allowed to use calculators.

TABLE 3

Comparison of Pretest and Posttest Scores for number concepts Mathematics

GRADE	PRETEST 88			POSTTEST 89			
	N	X	SD	N	X	SD	t-value
3**	25	598.04	29.85	25	624.81	57.82	2.68*
4	36	641.56	50.61	36	647.47	46.41	1.00
5**	26	639.54	43.57	26	656.58	22.72	2.62*
6	34	669.65	40.11	34	670.06	37.31	.09

** Students allowed to use calculators

* Significant at the .05 level

As can be seen in table 4 there was a significant difference between the means of the pretest and the posttest in application mathematics achievement scores in all grades tested whether the students were allowed to use calculators or not.

TABLE 4
Comparison of Pretest and Posttest Scores for Application Mathematics

GRADE	PRETEST 88			POSTTEST 89			
	N	X	SD	N	X	SD	t-value
3**	25	575.15	35.70	25	609.88	45.78	6.48*
4	36	612.53	48.62	36	636.94	41.07	4.47*
5**	26	622.65	39.77	26	641.19	33.58	4.01*
6	34	648.65	35.24	34	660.62	44.06	3.12*

** Students allowed to use calculators
* Significant at the .05 level

As can be seen from table 5 there was a significant difference in student attitudes from pretest to posttest at the .10 level.

TABLE 5
Comparison of Pretest and POSTTEST scores on attitudinal scale.

PRETEST			POSTTEST			t-value
N	X	SD	N	X	SD	
30**	90.33	15.53	30	98.47	15.32	1.44*

* Significant at .10 level
** N Represents number of classes

As can be seen from table 6 the frequencies of the positive responses at the end of the school year did not fit the expected per cent of positive responses from the beginning of the school year.

Table 6
Comparison of responses of parental survey Pre-to-Post.

QUESTION NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	CHI-SQUARE
Pos. Responses	33	30	31	36	38	35	30	38	35	28	
Percent	.12	.12	.10	.13	.09	.07	.06	.09	.11	.11	22.31*

*Significant at .05 level

The purpose of this study was to look at the effects of beginning to implement the NCTM standards on student achievement, student attitudes, and parental attitudes. These standards are very innovative and this study only looked at a few of the aspects of beginning to implement these standards and difficulties involved in their implementation. For example, should students be taught to use a calculator and then not be allowed to use it on a test? To me, this is the same as asking a mechanic to fix a motor without any tools. Or will parent expectations of what should be used to teach mathematics impede the implementation of the standards? Things that were not studied during the year, but were evident from discussions with the teachers included concerns about moving away from paper and pencil activities to a more hands on approach and how to justify a grade to a parent without a paper and pencil test. Even with over 40 hours of in service on the standards and methodology, teachers' reliance on paper and pencil activities have not changed dramatically. The resistance to changes is always difficult to overcome. Our students did realize significant gains in achievement, student attitudes toward mathematics did improve, and parental attitudes changed.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION:
General Session
Presenter: Aimee Howley
Co-Presenter: Angelo Volpe
Co-Presenter: Robert Dillman
Co-Presenter: Diane Reinhard
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 8:30am-10:15am

"Rural and Small Town Public Colleges and Universities: Regional Voices on Youth Issues"

An Abstract for a General Session
at the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium Annual Meeting

Submitted by the American Association of
State Colleges and Universities
Office of Urban and Rural Affairs
Washington, D.C.

October 25, 1990

March 17-20, 1991 Nashville, Tennessee

SESSION CONTENT:

The nation's ongoing economic downturns and budget deficits have left many states with no alternatives except to cut many of its services to public school systems and state higher education institutions. This has a dramatic effect particularly in our rural areas. With many teachers, administrators and staff in elementary and secondary schools stretched to their limits in terms of time and resources, many students resort to dropping out of the education system entirely.

In addition, the more demanding job entry-level skill requirements and the economic situations in many of our rural and remote communities are responsible for peak levels of unemployment. Traditionally, students in these areas would enter the work force immediately after, if not prior to, high school graduation. Many of our small town and rural higher education systems have recognized the needs of these young adults and have developed innovative programs to allow students to see for themselves that there are career possibilities available as a result of a college education.

The following descriptions represent efforts to foster student growth and development by the higher education community in distinctly different regions on the United States. This abstract details the activities and strategies of three state colleges and universities in implementing programs for rural-based education in Tennessee, Pennsylvania and West Virginia.

Presenter:
Dr. Angelo Volpe, President
Tennessee Technological University, Cookeville, Tennessee

"Tennessee Technological University's Rural Education Research and Service Consortium"

The Tennessee Technological University Rural Education Research and Service Consortium was established in 1984 to facilitate research and service activities of teacher education faculty in rural schools. It has evolved into a University-wide network of departments, programs, and individuals having research and/or service interests in rural issues.

Tennessee Tech is committed to rural school improvement as a mechanism for community development in the Tech service region and has a strategy for increasing the number of area graduates who are adequately prepared for college success. The University's investments in the program produce scholarly activity for faculty, external funds, positive University image, and improved educational experiences for youth of the region.

The presentation will describe the following aspects of the rural education program:

* Organizational and staffing characteristics

* Resource acquisition and allocation

* Program emphasis in the schools

* Strategies for faculty involvement, and

* Program outcomes

Presenter:
Dr. Diane Reinhard, President
Clarion University of Pennsylvania, Clarion, Pennsylvania

"Critical Issues Facing Rural Schools in Western Pennsylvania"

Issue #1: Professional isolation of the rural teacher is at a critical stage in Western Pennsylvania. Because of this isolation, teachers tend to perform more specialized duties than their urban and suburban counterparts. They have less instructional support personnel and fewer opportunities for professional development, and oftentimes are compensated about 30 percent less than other teachers across the Commonwealth. Clarion University has developed several initiatives to respond to these particular needs through the Center for Educational Leadership and other departments throughout the University. (The Rural Teachers Academy and the Education Alliance are two examples.)

Issue #2: Diminishing economic base of rural communities has impacted the quality of life in rural Western Pennsylvania. As a result, local schools have had to cut back services to students in various ways. To help combat this problem, the University has engaged several departments to respond to these issues. Through the Center for Educational Leadership, a Consortium for School-Business Partnerships was developed, organized and established to coordinate a systematic process to involve the local businesses with schools. The establishment of this consortium has impacted over a thousand students within the area and is growing daily.

Issue #3: Rural schools do not have access to the latest professional educational resources necessary to keep the staff informed of cutting edge ideas and issues in education. Through several programs at Clarion University (i.e., The Rural Library Program, STEP Program), including the Professional Resource File located within the Center for Educational Leadership, materials, books, and media are available to the seventeen school districts in a five-county area of the University.

Issue #4: The rural education administration has few opportunities for professional development activities within the immediate area and seldom attend conferences outside the area. The Center for Educational Leadership is entering into its fourth year of sponsoring the Superintendents' Roundtable Seminar. This seminar has served as an in-service vehicle for the school-based administrative team on topics associated with the Effective School Research.

Issue #5: Many students attending rural schools are experiencing a variety of problems associated with reduced self-esteem resulting in high levels of drug abuse, teen pregnancies, and low college enrollment. University personnel have participated in school workshops and supported school-based efforts to combat some of these problems. The Admissions Office has developed partnerships with the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities and local schools to increase the number of college-bound high school students and entered into pacts with Community Colleges to foster more efficient student transfer programs.

Presenter:
Dr. Robert Dillman, President
Fairmont State College, Fairmont, West Virginia

" 'Think College' 1989 Middle School Institute Fairmont State College"

The middle school years are critical ones in helping students to think about their future and in selecting appropriate high school courses and extracurricular activities. Many of our youngsters living in rural, often disadvantaged circumstances, have had little exposure to or interest in the changes occurring outside their immediate area. They often reflect inaccurate perceptions of their futures, hoping that outmoded technologies, e.g., coal mining, etc., will stage a comeback to provide jobs. The highly conservative beliefs of our rural areas often limit the thinking of young people in planning their futures. For these reasons, Fairmont State College initiated the first summer institute for middle school students which encouraged them to include, as an integral part of their lives, plans for the future.

Investigating a variety of careers — botany, geology, journalism, music, public service — exposed participants to totally new worlds of possibility. During the experience, the students investigated the prerequisites for their own personal areas of interest — personal attributes and educational requirements — and talked directly with practictioners in those fields. This set of experiences, when taken in their totality, will hopefully form the basis for lifelong pursuits.

We believe that the institute provided vital service to students by exposing them to career alternatives, in guiding them toward educational goals, and in preparing them to face the world outside their own isolated regions (both geographic and social). The institute sought to assure that the participants became aware of all their alternatives before they are forced to make a choice. It is virtually impossible to make a choice of which you are unaware.

The program itself was conducted in a two-week long residential setting on the Fairmont State College campus. Participants were housed and fed on campus. All transportation was provided with the exception of transporting individual participants to and from the institute. That transportation was the responsibility of the participants' parents, legal guardian, etc. However, in two instances, participating counties, Lewis and Randolph, used school buses to transport students and parents to and from the Institute.

West Virginia educators, as well as others from predominantly rural states, need to be concerned about the high dropout rate of high school students and the low percentage of students who attend college. This two-week residential program encouraged students to investigate social and environmental problem areas, provided experiences in theater, recreation, video production, Appalachian folklore, word processing and computers, field trips, and allowed fellowship to be established with one another. We would like to see other colleges in West Virginia join us in designing summer programs that stimulate the interest of middle school students in remaining in school, attending college and selecting and pursuing worthwhile careers. A careful follow-up of the students through their high school years may show that such programs can make a difference in helping West Virginia students in choosing to pursue an education.

SPEAKERS:

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POSSIBLE FORMAT:

The above speakers would take 10-15 minutes offering their views on rural youth education issues and sharing "what works" with their various institutional programs. Time would be allowed for each panelist to react to the others' ideas and then audience participants would have time to ask questions and share comments so that an effective and lively interchange can occur.

RESOURCE PERSON:

For information and planning for this session, contact:

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Rural Affairs

October 5, 1990

American Association of State Colleges and Universities

PRESIDENT BUSH'S RURAL DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVE

Secretary of Agriculture Clayton Yeutter, chairman of the White House's Economic Policy Council's (EPC) working group on rural development, recently announced three of the initiative's actions. First, the council, in coordination with governors' offices, will establish state level, federal Rural Development Councils. The initial eight will be formed in Kansas, Maine, Mississippi, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas and Washington. Second, each council will be staffed by a full-time federal coordinator to carry out its activities and third, a national rural economic development institute is to be developed by the University of Wisconsin Cooperative Extension Service to train Council members, state and local government rural development officials and private industry representatives of rural enterprises.

The councils are designed to create a partnership with state government and the private sector, identify available federal resources, create long-term rural development strategy, and carry out joint implementation actions. All federal government departments with rural development responsibilities are members of the EPC, such as the USDA, the departments of Commerce, Education, Health and Human Services, Housing and Urban Development, Interior, Labor, Transportation, Veterans Affairs, Defense, and the Small Business Administration.

AASCU members in the above referenced states should contact their AASCU state representatives and governors to express their interest and comments about this initiative. Those interested in becoming involved in the institute should contact Ron Shaffer, University of Wisconsin, 423 Taylor Hall, Madison, Wis. 53706.

SOUTHWEST STATE UNIVERSITY PLAYS HOST TO JOINT COUNCIL

President Douglas Treadway, chair of AASCU's Committee on Agricultural and Rural Development and member of the Joint Council on Food and Agricultural Sciences of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, hosted the summer joint meeting of the Joint Council and the Users Advisory Board. This year's meeting featured topics on the president's rural development initiative with presentations by Walter Hill, USDA assistant under secretary for rural development and Charles Hess, USDA assistant secretary for science and education.

Summer meeting participants visited two of Southwest State University's neighboring towns, Redwood Falls and Dawson, Minn.. The visits served as case studies of small town development and the importance of university-town partnerships to further rural revitalization efforts; enhance educational opportunities for young people as well as adults; and view the programs of the Minnesota Extension System. The case studies are being prepared for publication by AASCU.

AASCU's Office of Rural Affairs is soliciting comments and questions from AASCU members on their institutional public service efforts in their communities. Contact Mary Gordon.

SPOTLIGHT ON WEST VIRGINIA

During his recent visit to AASCU, President Robert Dillman, of **Fairmont State College**, (W.Va.), offered a presentation to staff about the issues, trends, politics and social changes occuring in his state. Dillman shared his perspectives about life in the state and the importance of higher education in the region. Despite the challenges of low funding and a loss of faculty, which is reflected elsewhere around the nation, Dillman indicated that Fairmont State is reinforcing its outreach efforts for adult and continuing education programs.

Dillman announced that Fairmont has recently received a $3 million appropriation from the Federal Aviation Administration for the construction of the Mid-Atlantic Training and Education Center. "I am elated that Fairmont State College was given the opportunity to play an integral role in the progressive efforts of the West Virginia Air Center, Dillman said. I feel very confident that our college can provide excellent academic and training programs to enhance this venture. This is a prime example of the importance of pulling together the human and financial resources of education, government and business sectors to not only advance the technology of existing and much needed aviational occupations, but also to create an economic boost for the region." The appropriation followed the October '89 groundbreaking ceremonies for the air center located at Benedum Airport in Clarksburg, W.Va.

Its existence will serve two critical needs by functioning as a "one stop" facility for the inspections, repairs and maintenance of the commuter airline industry and to help in the revitalization of the area. Fairmont's training and education center will initiate two associate degree programs to help fill the void of 4,000 unfilled technical jobs. Fairmont has an enrollment of 6,100 students, ranking third in enrollment of the state's colleges and universities.

President Dillman currently serves on AASCU's Committee on Agricultural and Rural Development as well as its Task Force on Adult and Continuing Education. He was also recently appointed as the AASCU state representative for West Virginia.

FOCUS ON AMERICAN INDIANS

The College Board's new report, "Our Voices, Our Vision: American Indian's Speak Out for Educational Excellence," proposes new strategies for establishing policy changes and new program areas to better serve the educational needs of the American Indian communities while maintaining the culture and traditions.

The publication results from a series of seven regional dialogues held last year on American Indian education. The report, available for $7.95, can be obtained by writing the College Board, Office of Academic Affairs, Educational EQuality Project, 45 Columbus Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10023-6992.

FRIENDS OF AASCU

The International Science and Education Council (ISEC), Office of International Cooperation and Development (OICD) at the USDA, an AASCU partner, offers AASCU and its members an opportunity to get to know two of its key staffers.

Monika Escher, ISEC's coordinator, began her two-year IPA assignment at the beginning of this year. She is from the University of Arizona where she is the program coordinator of the Office of International Agriculture Programs. At ISEC, she has the major responsibility for developing and implementing international agriculture research and technical cooperation projects with other government agencies, universities and the private sector. She has been active with the university's Title XII program and serves its advisory board's Women in Development Project. She is also the campus director for the National Resource Management Support Project and the Senegal Agricultural Production Support Project.

Duane Acker, OICD's administrator, coordinates USDA's international training and technical assistance programs and oversees research projects and scientific exchanges with other nations on topics of interest to universities, the agribusiness industry and U.S. farmers. He has been the assistant to the administrator for food and agriculture at the Agency for International Development (AID). During his tenure with AID, he served as distinguished professor at Kansas State University. Secretary of Agriculture Clayton Yeutter said, "With his experience from the State Department and his extensive academic training in agriculture, Dr. Acker is uniquely qualified to direct the programs at OICD."

TOP FOREST STATES

USA Today reports the top five states with the largest percentage of total land area covered by forests are Maine (89 percent), New Hampshire (88.1 percent), West Virginia (77.5 percent), Vermont (75.7 percent) and Alabama (66.9 percent).

GLOBAL AGRICULTURE NEEDS

Over the past decade, universities with programs in agricultural and renewable resources have begun to use more accurate definitions about agriculture and experimental farming. Future agriculture must respond to the needs and diets of constant world population growth withoout creating hazards for the environment.

Sustainable agriculture enhances environmental quality over the long term and the resource base on which agriculture depends. It provides for basic human food/fiber needs, is economically viable, and enhances the quality of life for the farmer as well as the global society.

Low-input agriculture differs in that it limits outside materials, such as chemical pesticides, to promote sustainable agriculture with environmentally friendly herbicides and biotechnology with goals toward reducing planetary pollution.

Gene transfer technology is used to design crops that need less chemical insecticides with techniques to protect crops from insect damage by transferring differing crop genes into host plants to create resistance to viral diseases and promote insect tolerance.

It is estimated that the world population will double to 10 billion by the year 2030 with people needing more than twice the food and improved diets.

RURAL DEMOGRAPHICS

- Rural Americans are approximately one fourth of the total U.S. population, one third of the nation's elderly and more than one half of the nation's poor.

- Rural population growth has begun a gradual increase after a decline over the period of 1980-1986 with a rate of 0.8 percent for the latter part of the 1980's. Regions with large population losses have been southern Appalachia and the southern Great Plains. The fastest growing nonmetro counties during this period were in Florida and the Southwest due in great part to their adjacence to metro areas and retirement communities.

- The preliminary figures from the U.S. Census report that the heart of the U.S. is "hollowing out" and the population is expected to hit 250 million nationwide with a concentration on the east and west coasts.

OPINION COLUMN

Edwin C. Nelson, president emeritus of Chadron State College in Nebraska predicts: "Before the turn of the century, there will be some dramatic and exciting changes in our elementary and secondary schools and in higher education. People in the schools will be recognized as leaders, helping society adjust to change. Youth, as well as educators, will see themselves as having roles and leadership responsibilities in helping to shape visions, to promote communications, to assist in establishing goals and plans, and in feeling empowered and committed to an ever-improving future. School curricula will allow more creativity and flexibility in responding to the real needs of the local, national and world society. These reflections show indications of promise for many rural communities to thrive through the years ahead. None have to die or even wither if the citizens are determined to help them adjust to the changing times."

This excerpt is from Dr. Nelson's speech, "No Town Has To Die," which is published in the September/October issue of "Small Town" from the Small Towns Institute in Ellensburg, Wash.

FROM THE COMMITTEE CHAIR

President Douglas Treadway, Southwest State University, announces that AASCU's Committee on Agricultural and Rural Development will hold its business meeting on Sunday, Nov. 18, 1990 at 3 p.m. at the AASCU 30th Annual Meeting in Boca Raton, Fla.. The final meeting program will indicate the location. Committee members will receive more details on the meeting in October.

AASCARR

"Networking to Meet the Challenges of the Nineties," is the theme of this year's American Association of State Colleges of Agriculture and Renewable Resources (AASCARR) meeting hosted by Northeastern Lousiana University in Monroe Oct. 6-9. Activities include the traditional business meetings, the annual membership banquets, agricultural site tours of catfish processing, cotton growing and alligator farming. In addition the AID/AASCU linkages workshop, "Networking for a Multicultural Campus: International Students on Campus," will be held during the AASCARR meeting. An interesting topic for this year's conference will be animal welfare.

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NRSSC/ACRES CONSORTIUM
NASHVILLE - MARCH 19, 1991

Reaching our Potential: Rural Education in the 90's

Topic - "Rural and Small Town Colleges and Universities: Regional Voices on Youth Issues"

I bring greetings to you from President Reinhard along with her regrets for not being able to be with you this morning. It is indeed a privilege to be here with you on behalf of Clarion University. I am thankful to have an opportunity to share my first hand experience and attest to the many fine programs that have been initiated at Clarion University to assist the small/rural schools in our area. It is especially gratifying for the educators of area, to know that we now have a President who comes with a background in education. Although, Dr. Reinhard has only been with us a short time, we are already beginning to feel her influence in many positive ways.

For those of you if may not be familiar with Clarion University, it is located in Western Pennsylvania along Interstate 80 approximately 2 hours north of Pittsburgh. It is part of our State System of Higher Education. It has an enrollment of around 6300 students offering three(3) associate degree programs, seventy(70) baccalaureate programs, and eleven(11) graduate programs. Clarion University serves one of the largest rural areas in Pennsylvania and has the second largest population of rural students attending a state owned institution of higher education.

Dr. Reinhard feels that the University must address programs that will have an economic impact in the area and promote collaborative efforts with the business and school communities. The University's role in these efforts, she has stated, " must be universal; it is not just the responsibility of the College of Education and Human Resources".

Four years ago, the University established the Center for Educational Leadership and named Dr. Claude Perkins as its director. The Center has been a catalyst in the University's efforts to address the continuing needs of rural teachers and administrators.

This morning, I will review with you five(5) critical issues facing rural Western Pennsylvania. Time does not permit an in-depth exploration of each area. Therefore, I will briefly suggest the core of the issue and share some examples of the programs which have been implemented at CUPA. I will be happy to explain any of the programs more fully during the question period or send the information to you.

Issue #1 Professional isolation of the rural Western Pennsylvania teacher is at a critical stage in Western Pennsylvania.

Because of this isolation, teachers tend to perform more specialized duties than their urban and suburban counterparts. They teach a wider range of courses, frequently teach at several grade levels and are expected to assume many extra curricular responsibilities. They have less instructional support personnel and fewer opportunities for professional development. Their compensation oftentimes is about 30 percent less than other teachers across the Commonwealth. Pennsylvania has also passed legislation which requires every school district to prepare and implement a Staff Development Plan which includes a Teacher Induction Plan for "new" teachers.

Response: 1. A Rural Teacher Academy was established as a component of the Center for Educational Leadership(CEL). Through on-going seminars, workshops, sharing of the latest materials and resources, and interaction with colleagues the Academy provides:

a) *exposure* to new and innovative concepts in the field of educational leadership and effective schools.

b) *skills* in mobilizing community support, conducting needs assessment, program evaluation, program revision and design, and long-range planning.

c) *renewal* of skills required to be agents and managers of change, and

d) *assistance* in helping rural school districts meet their unique needs along with expanding opportunities for rural students to participate in higher education.

The Academy has sponsored two(2) significant activities.

a) The Rural Teacher and University Exchange Program provides an opportunity for public school teachers and university faculty to teach in each other's classrooms. While at the university, teachers work on particular problems determined to be of importance to their school situation. Exchange participants are supported in attending professional workshops, conferences and seminars and in obtaining materials to enhance their teaching.

b) On location workshops are designed around special interests and are intended to put teachers on the "cutting edge" of the most recent findings and practices in educational research.

2. Academic Alliance for International Education

Although Academic Alliances or collaboratives have been around for approximately ten years, this is a new concept in our area. This Alliance brings together elementary and secondary schools with the University for the purpose of promoting international awareness and understanding. The Alliance initiates and supports programs of educational, cultural and informational exchange which are so desperately needed because of our isolation.

3. Rural Professional Development Center

We are very excited to announce that the Center for Educational Leadership has just been awarded a $10,000.00 planning grant. It is expected that this Center will impact about 1000 teachers and close to 30,000 students. The grant supports pre-service development, in-service for public school teachers and university faculty, research, distant learning/technologies, and site development.

Issue #2 The diminishing economic base of rural communities has impacted the quality of life in Western Pennsylvania. The area has suffered a number of severe set-backs over the last ten(10) years with the loss of the coal, gas, oil and most recently, the glass industry. There is a high unemployment rate, poor health care and undereducated workers. A large percentage of our parent population either did not finish high school or if they did complete high school they entered the labor market immediately upon graduation. Very few went on to post-secondary education because of the "high" paying jobs available in the area at that time. Many of them did not see the importance of education; an attitude that we struggle with even today. As a result of the decline in the economy of the region, local schools have had to cut back services to students in various ways.

Response: The CEL has established a Consortium for School Business Partnerships. A grant was received by the CEL to develop a Model for Establishing School Business Partnerships in Rural Schools. Sufficient additional monies were secured through a local trust, to involve two(2) school districts in the development of the model. The Consortium now has thirty-three(33) educational partnerships and is operating in three school districts. The partnerships are promoting a better understanding of schools and their needs among area businesses. Districts in turn are not only benefitting from the input of the businesses and have gainded new advocates speaking on behalf of the schools and their needs.

Issues 3 Rural schools do not have access to the latest professional educational resources necessary to keep the staff informed of cutting edge ideas and issues in education.

Response: 1. A Center for the Study of Rural Librianship was established in 1978. Unique in its function, it is the only facility in the United States which serves as a mouthpiece for circumstances surrounding small/rural libraries. Among its functions are research, publication, continuing education, and consultation. Indeed it is a "cheerleader" for small/rural libraries throughout the United States and overseas.

2. The CEL has responded to this issue by establishing its own Professional Resource Center. This Resource Center features an extensive library of video and audio cassettes, books, pamphlets, and journals that deal with current educational topics. These materials are available on a loan basis to area educators.

3. The University is home for PA STEP (Pennsylvania Science Teacher Education Program). Through a 5.2 million dollar grant, science teachers in the area are provided with current resources in science education and are given opportunities for training or retraining.

Issue #4 The rural educational administrators have few opportunities for professional development within their immediate area and seldom attend conferences outside of their area. In rural areas, the number of administrators in any given district are few in number. Thus, if the administrator leaves the school district there is usually no one to tend the "store". Superintendents and school boards are unwilling to risk not having administrative coverage in the district. What frequently occurs, is that a district will be able to employ substitutes for teachers to attend conferences and workshops but the administrators do not have exposure to what their teachers are learning and are therefore, not able to support and encourage their teachers.

Response: 1. The CEL has for the last four years hosted a Superintendent's Roundtable that has brought local, state and national figures to a local site for a two(2) day seminar. The Roundtable's have provided a reasonable opportunity for our educators to examine the basic elements associated with educational change and restructuring. In addition, the seminars have permitted the participants to engage in critical discussions associated with educational planning in the areas of curriculum, finance, school organization, and school/community relations.

2. The CEL is responding to a need to provide opportunities for local district administrative teams to retreat for strategic planning and training. Plans are underway to organize a summer retreat which would provide a block of time for interaction with experts and other area administrators to be followed by time for each team to discuss and develop action plans at a local level.

Issue #5 Many students attending rural schools are experiencing many problems associated with reduced self-esteem resulting in high levels of drug abuse, particularly alcohol, teen pregnancies, and low college enrollment. The economy of our area, as mentioned during my comments on issue 2 has seriously deteriorated with the decline of the coal, gas, oil, and glass industries. You will recall that many of our parents did not complete high school and few have gone on to any form of postsecondary education because of the opportunity they had during the highpoint of these industries to obtain "high" paying jobs without much education. In fact, there is some data to support the notion that certain employers feel it best to keep their labor force "uneducated". One of the major elements of this issues is the failure of many parents to recognize the need for an education. Thus, there is often little encouragement from the parents and few college visitations are initiated by the family. Family breakdowns have resulted in many single parent families and families with both parents working. These factors have complicated the issue.

Response: 1. The college admissions office received a grant from the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities (PACU) to develop a college visitation program directed at 8th grade students with particular emphasis on mathematics and science career opportunities for females. Another similar program was hosted by the University for 10th grade students who spent an entire day on the campus with high exposure to all aspects of college life. Follow-up studies have indicated that both programs were very successful in changing attitudes regarding college as an educational option.

2. In cooperation with the Pennsylvania Council for Economic Education and the Center for Economic Education at the University, my school district piloted a new curriculum, "Taking Charge: Learning Economics through Entrepreneurship". Six school districts from the Appalachian Region were chosen for the project with our district being the most rural. Our district, the smallest and the most rural district, demonstrated the greatest gains. The neat thing about the program was the collaborative effort between the Keystone School District, the Clarion University, and approximately forty(40) area business.

3. The Dean of College of Business at the University, has been very actively involved in the Clarion County Industrial Development Council. For the first time, an Education Committee has been appointed as a standing committee. The dean, along with myself and other committee members recently conducted a survey of our one hundred largest businesses to determine the educational and attitudinal needs of the work force of the next ten years in our area. Through the collaborative efforts of the University staff, a "Report to Our Customers" has been released outlining the committees findings. Members of the University faculty and business partners are now serving on panels and visiting schools to emphasis the need to complete their high school education and develop the attitude that learning is a life-long experience.

In conclusion, I wish to commend Clarion University for taking a leadership role in forming collaboratives with our local educational institutions and our business community. Through these collaborative efforts, I have personally witnessed in my school system several very important changes.

1. The teacher morale is at a high point because their teaching is being authenticated.
2. There is new support for our schools and the role they must play in the future revitalization of our area.
3. The collaboratives are generating new advocates for our schools. Businesses are in our

schools. They see our needs and are better spokesmen then we could ever hope to be.

4. Recognition is being given to deserving students and faculty members.
5. There is a new pride developing in the area among students and faculty members.
6. The collaborative efforts which have begun are beginning to point to a brighter future for the youth of our region.

Thank you for giving me this opportunity to represent Clarion University and share the excitement we enjoy as we work with this fine institution.

Dr. William L. Regester, Superintendent
Keystone School District
Knox, PA 16232

Dr. Robert J. Dillman, President
Dr. Harry Hadley,
Dean of Teacher Education
Dr. Helen Jones,
Professor of Education
Fairmont State College
Fairmont, WV 26554

The "Think College" Program and Rural At-Risk Youth*

Panel presentation at the Joint Symposium of the American Council on Rural Special Education and National Rural and Small School Consortium - March 19, 1991 in Knoxville, Tennessee

It is a real pleasure to be part of this panel that is focusing attention upon higher education programs that try to address the needs of "at-risk" youth in rural areas. The magnitude of the problem in West Virginia is so significant and compelling that we thought we should share our initial efforts at Fairmont State College to address this issue.

West Virginia ranks last in the college-going rate in the nation with just over 30 percent of our high school graduates going on to some type of post secondary education. Only 10 percent of the adult population have a college education. The high school drop-out rate is one of the highest in the nation.

There are many significant factors contributing to this educational situation, many of which are beyond the scope of this discussion. However, it is fair to state that the educational circumstances are exacerbated by the following conditions:

1) high unemployment and high underemployment;
2) significant underdevelopment of certain sectors of the economy of the state particularly service and technological industries;
3) low average wage rate of $21,000 per family;
4) a loss of 4 percent of the state's population over the past decade;
5) the painful transition of the state's economy from a primary extractive industrial base (coal, chemicals, timber) to a more diversified service and technical base.

Governor Gaston Caperton and the state legislature have recognized the need for a better educational system for all students in public education and higher education throughout West Virginia. Over the past two years, the Governor and the legislature have made efforts to increase salaries, and to generate a large infusion of resources into the classroom technology (computers).

*A thirteen minute tape of the "Think College" program was presented during the speech.

The "Think College" Institute appears to have been successful. The West Virginia Association of Student Personnel Administrators presented its 1989 Innovative Program Award to the Middle School Institute. One of the outside evaluators who spent a day visiting and observing students engaged in lively discussions and activities wrote:

"I have had the opportunity to work with preadolescent learners for the past eleven years, and I feel that I know a little bit about this "fragile" age group. I am pleased to say that, from my observations, those individuals involved in the implementation and design of the Middle School Institute must have done a great deal of research. The programs are designed to meet the needs of the middle childhood learner."

The second annual program was completed on June 30, 1990. The staff-both faculty members and counselors - showed remarkable stability as four of six counselors and ten of twelve of the faculty returned for a second year. "The strength and dynamism of this program is evident to everyone who has contact with it", commented director, Helen Jones. "The tremendous growth we observe in the students in self-confidence, eagerness to participate, independence, cooperation, and accepting responsibility is a joy to all of us. We truly feel that West Virginia has a great human resource in these very able youngsters who deserve a chance to see the many possibilities for their future and the confidence to pursue their goals."

In conclusion, we feel certain observations would be helpful to others looking at this "Think College" model:

1) The program needs to be part of a statewide network so that it is comprehensive and has state support;

2) The Critical nature of mentoring and counseling that takes place in the program requires a careful selection of staff;

3) The importance of a good follow-up during the academic year is important;

4) Selection of teaching staff to work in the program is critical, and their continuing in the program guarantees greater success;

5) A successful model requires a close partnership of college and university faculty, public school teachers, and undergraduate college students.

At the higher education level, the college-going rate has improved over the past five years because of special efforts by colleges and universities in West Virginia to draw attention to the need for post secondary education. However, the overall level of awareness and interest in college as a viable option for so many "at-risk" rural youth remains a major obstacle.

Fairmont State College decided to develop a model program to try and reach young people who saw little reason for pursuing their education. It was decided early in our discussion that the greatest impact would occur if certain important variables could be established:

1) students selected would have the native ability to do well in school, but did not have strong support for pursuing college;

2) we would recruit 7th and 8th grade students because it was the last opportunity to have a possible impact upon their decisions about their future educational goals;

3) it would be a resident program that would provide the opportunity to experience the full range of activities associated with college and university life;

4) the program would expose the students to new areas of academic interest, but would not be strictly a lecture type class format (outdoor activities and laboratory exercises would be emphasized);

5) the selection of students would be done by local officials, including guidance counselors and principals;

6) college student mentors would serve as good role models;

7) public school teachers and college faculty would serve in teaching groups;

8) a strong follow-up component would monitor the success or failure of the program.

The "Think College" Institute evolved as a natural extension of the mission of Fairmont State College - to address the educational needs of our service area. The idea was first proposed by Fairmont State College to superintendents of public schools and Regional Educational Service Area (RESA) VII officials at a meeting in the fall of 1988. With the enthusiastic support of these educators, the idea developed into the first Middle School Institute in June, 1989.

The curriculum was designed around the needs of middle school youth with three major emphases: 1) communicating, 2) the environment, and 3) social problem solving. Additional activities - sports, swimming, storytelling, technology - were offered in the evenings. Several field trips were arranged, including a day at Prickett's Fort (a local historical site) and an evening at the theater was scheduled. At a banquet on the final evening, parents gathered to hear the students make presentations and to view the original videotapes the students had written, produced, and edited.

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Martha F. Owens
Co-Presenter: Susan B. Rockett
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

Martha F. Owens, Director
Susan B. Rockett, Program Director
Educational Excellence, Inc.
P.O. Box 141
Ocilla, Georgia 31774

EVERY CHILD A WINNER

The Every Child A Winner Model is nationally validated to improve fitness, motor skill, and contribute to improvement in academics and self-esteem K-6. The model was originally developed in a rural school system and has been widely adopted nationwide. The presentation will focus on implementation of the model at local school sites. Emphasis will be placed on practical, proven, strategies for teacher skill building which has resulted in ten physical educators being awarded the Physical Educator of the Year Awards. The program has been widely adopted due to its developmentally appropriate curriculum, field tested lesson plans and proven track record of improving fitness, motor skills while also improving school wide discipline, vocabulary, critical thinking skills, and self-esteem. Concepts are taught which allow students of different cultures, mental and physical skills to create child designed dances, gymnastics sequences, and games. Maximum participation allows each child an opportunity to improve skills while also allowing opportunity to think creatively. The Every Child A Winner curriculum has been field tested for over twenty years and has been adopted in over 5,000 schools in the United States, Canada, and the Virgin Islands. Ten national demonstration/training sites are available for observing the program and receiving training. The model is a member of the National Diffusion Network of Innovative Programs, United States Department of Education which requires rigid evaluation and accountability for membership. Every Child A Winner has been a member since 1974 and has revalidated the program every six years to remain a member.

NRSSC PRESNTATION
Presenter: Robin P. Lambert
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 19.1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

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(Copyright applied for)

"Broad Policies, Local Schools" is purposely an oxymoron. It is intended to raise questions of how blanket policies can be appropriate for all local schools. Reform movements almost always result in the development and implementation of broad policies. These are not always so well-founded or examined as the word "reform" suggests they should be. For all its talk of re-structuring and school-based improvement, the reform movement of the 1980s has been largely a top-down effort. Almost every state has initiated more or less sweeping reforms through either its State Department of Education or the governor's office. These efforts are developed by a centralized authority and apply to virtually all schools in the state. They are based on the assumption that there is one single model which is best for all schools. I am indebted to David Tyack for his work, The One Best System, (Harvard University Press, 1974) which critiques this assumption and provides a useful term to describe it.

A few analogies will help illustrate the point. No wise parent would develop one set of rules and apply them unbendingly to all their children. A wise parent certainly has clear guidelines for what is expected of their children. But, each child is known individually and rules are enforced depending on the nature of that child and his or her particular circumstance. The "one best model" approach to schooling contains no such wisdom. It applies uniform rules to all schools regardless of the inherent nature of each individual school or of its particular economic and geographic circumstance. I would argue, however, that this paternalistic metaphor is inappropriate for schools. Public schools are afterall PUBLIC institutions. They are located in communities governed by adults. They were established orginally to serve the local community as an education provider and as an institution which brought citizens together in common concern and action to govern the school's activities. A shift to a paternalistic and centralized authority enforcing rules on local residents is a dangerous shift away from a strong American democratic tradition.

Suppose, however, that reforms are set out, not as laws to be enforced on recalcitrant children, but as models to which all schools should aspire. If these reforms are general and beneficent, for example, local schools should provide equal access to educational programs for all its children in a physically safe facility, then the reforms might be called standards of justice. They are not only appropriate but necessary. However, if the reforms are extremely specific, for example: every good high school offers a two-track diploma system, then the standards will begin to contravene the strengths and imaginations of local schools and communities. A high school in which all students take advanced courses does not need a two track diploma system. When schools are forced to aspire to something they are not, they risk not being the best that they can be. Everyone has known someone who "puts on airs", who tries to be something they have been led tobelieve is better than who they are naturally. Such a person is invariably annoying. We find ourselves saying, "if he would only be himself he would be so much nicer. . . or smarter. . . or more productive." The natural strengths and contributions of such a person are buried under their efforts to be something they are not.

It is essential to understand how the "one best model" approach has permeated much of our educational practice if one is to understand how broad policies affect local, particularly rural and small, schools. The "one best model" is the fallacy on which many policies and reform efforts are built. It suggests what size schools should be, what specific curriculum should be covered and how, how all teachers should be trained, what standardized criteria must be met for a school to attain accreditation. Its models are particularly detrimental to rural and small schools because they are almost always based on urban and suburban circumstances and because they frequently are not guidelines for justice but rules for enforcement.

Rural is different from urban and suburban. More than anything else it is characterized by diversity. Across the country and within states there is more variety among and in rural communities than there is in most cities. In the southeast, there are appalachian, coastal, Black belt, Native American, mining, farming, and bedroom rural communities. Our communities differ dramatically from those of New England, the mid-West, and the desert southwest. There are, however, many characteristics rural communities almost everywhere share. The first is population sparsity. There simply are fewer people in rural areas. Many people in rural areas are, therefore, generalists with a breadth of knowledge and a variety of skills. Rural communities tend to be inclusive and cooperative -- everyone is needed if an activity is going to be successful. Rural cultures tend to be oriented toward action and the production of tangible products -- people make things. Finally, rural areas tend to be resource rich but money poor. Rural communities are rich in human resources, in shared memories, in social and familial connections, in cultural traditions, in the basic skills by which human life is sustained. Increasingly, however, rural communities are places where physical resources are extracted and where communities and residents have less disposible money income.

We see that many of these characteristcs -- diversity, generalist skills and knowledge, mental and physical dexterity, the capacity to create, and a valuing of human relationships -- are increasingly the characteristics advocated for a strong economy, a healthy environment, and a quality education. Nevertheless, most reforms and the policies they generate are antithetical to these very characteristics. While it is not the purpose of this presentation to examine the historical roots of modern reforms, it is worth noting that most are more extensive versions of policies which have been around a long time. This presentation will examine six common state policies, their effects on small and rural schools, and some promising alternatives.

I. TEACHER CERTIFICATION. Ostensibly teacher certification is an attempt to ensure than teachers are qualified to teach their subject matter. There is nothing problemmatical about such a goal. However, areas of certification have become increasingly narrow as teachers are trained to teach a more and more limited range of courses. This reflects the dominance of a belief in specialization. The old adage about Ph.D.'s might be apt for some teaching certificates, that is, you know more and more about less and less until you know everything about nothing. There are several problems which grow out of the very narrow range of subject matter for which teacher obtain license to teach.

Problems of Narrow Certifications.

1) Narrow certifications make it difficult to integrate curriculum across subject areas. Integration of material, concepts, and skills is an important element of good education.

2) Frequently the number of specialists needed to teach all the subjects required is more than a small school can afford. Since subject area specialists are generally required most often at the secondary level, schools are often forced to adjust their teaching loads in less than satisfactory ways. For example, the concentration of specialists at the secondary level often results in increased class size at the elementary level as local schools and school systems try to reduce the overall number of teachers employed. This model also forces middle grades into a departmentalized high school model although there is evidence to suggest that self-contained classrooms are the most beneficial to young adolescents.

3) The difficulty rural teachers face in obtaining additional certifications in order to expand the range of courses they can teach is often prohibitive. Often a large number of extra courses are required and these courses are not accessible to working teachers who live far from colleges and universities.

4) It is often difficult for educated people who decide they want to teach to obtain a teaching certificate. Native speakers of a foreign language, engineers, artists, and others with special skills may find it next to impossible to meet all requirements for a teaching certificate despite demonstrated skill in their field and their desire to teach.

Solutions for Certification Problems.

1) More generalist certifications should be offered an the grades covered should be expanded. This solution will require rigorous academic content in college courses with a limited number of strong professional and methodology courses. Certificates which prepare someone to be a math/science generalist or an English/humanities generalist would foster much stronger curriculum integration and would reduce the number of specialists required of a school. Elementary certificates which include strong preparation in art, music, and physical education and cover seventh, eighth, and even ninth grades would be educationally and fiscally sound.

2) Programs should be offered which make it easier for people who are currently teaching to obtain additional certifications. This will require offering courses in specially scheduled times and in formats accessible to people who live a long way from the college or university. The University of Alabama's PACERS program enabled 100 schools to obtain a certified foreign language teacher. It offered all the courses needed for a second certification in Spanish and French in summer and weekend classes. Consideration should also be given to reducing the number of courses required for additional certification in some subject areas, especially those related to subject areas in which the teacher already has certification or for teachers who have demonstrated capacity to master and teach a subject effectively. (Examples provided in oral presentation.)

3) Teachers who obtain additional certification, especially in critical needs areas, should receive additional compensation. The education obtained and service provided by a teacher with several certifications is comparable to that of a masters degree.

4) Programs such as the PACERS program described above should be made available to college graduates who wish to teach but do not have a certificate. These programs should include credit for successful current or previous teaching experience.

5) Provisions should be made to make it easier for schools to share specialist teachers through itineration, part-time positions, and interactive teaching technologies. Many subject areas which require specialized knowledge are only taught to a small number of students in a limited number of class periods. Enabling these specialist teachers to work in several schools would greatly increase their impact.

II. CURRICULUM. Many reforms of the 1980s have been aimed at increasing advanced classes, instituting Honors Diplomas or other tracked high school curricula, and improving scores on standardized tests. These goals become serious detriments to the effective functioning of a school if they are the determining factors in the school's curriculum.

Problems of Standardized Curriculum for Rural and Small Schools.

1) Tracked high school curricula face all the philosophical problems associated with any kind of academic tracking: they are predicated on the belief that "some students can't." A two track diploma system forces schools to put some students in the "bottom" track almost guaranteeing that their achievement will be reduced. This kind of tracking disrupts the basic inclusiveness and cooperative learning characteristic of small rural schools. It requires two classes per grade, an expensive and unmanageable prospect for many small schools.

2) The goal of improving standardized test scores tends toward a curriculum which is seat-work oriented and abstracted from the experiences and intellectual lives of students. It may teach students test-taking strategies or how to "bubble in" more effectively but it rarely stimulates curiosity or real academic interest. A test-oriented curriculum tends to produce scores rather than tangible products so it is unnatural tc what is characteristic of rural. It makes learning a private transaction between student and teacher or student and test-giver; it does not make the student accountable to anyone else and at best fosters a kind of individualistic and competitive achievement mentality. A further problem of such standardized tests is they tend to measure knowledge, experiences, and language of a dominant urban and suburban culture. They tend not to measure well what rural and culturally different students know. This is especially significant in the southeast. (Examples in the oral presentation.)

3) Curriculum tends to be oriented toward urban and suburban schools. Textbooks are developed for major urban centers and states which are major purchasers. There is an implicit devaluation of rural in this type curriculum. Students learn about distant places but not about their own communities; they learn about the supreme court without learning about the probate court or about international economics without learning about the economics of their own communities. (Examples provided in the oral presentation.) As a result we are losing important skills, memories, traditions, cultures, and perspectives that are uniquely local and rural.

Some Solutions to Current Problems of Curriculum.

1) Curriculum should be integrated and non-tracked as much as possible. It should incorporate peer and cross-grade tutoring and allow for both individual and cooperative group work. Curriculum appropriate to multi-grade classrooms should be developed. This goal will be easier with more generalist teachers.

2) The curriculum should be hands-on and focused on the production of tangible public results. The rural value of "learning by doing" should be recovered in rural schools. Hands-on learning with public results produces knowledge with more staying power and increases the confidence and motivation of students. Such a curriculum will place less emphasis on test score improvement but could well produce that result.

3) The curriculum should include a strong focus on the local community. This focus will inevitably increase hands-on opportunities for students; it will value students' cultural inheritances which are often devalued and will introduce students to people and skills which they should know.

4) Field trips should be encouraged, especially in schools where many students are poor and have few opportunities to travel.

III. TEACHER TRAINING. In addition to the problems cited with many current certification requirements, teacher training tends to be biased toward urban, suburban, and affluent schools. It is often less than satisfactory preparation for teachers in rural schools.

Problems of Urban-Based Teacher Training.

1) Teacher training tends to be oriented toward urban schools and heavily dependent on purchased materials and equipment. This training does not prepare prospective teachers for the different characterisitics of rural schools and the more limited financial resources available to them.

2) Urban-based teacher training does not prepare teachers to understand rural schools. It can blind teachers to the strengths of small schools: their familial and inclusive nature, their high levels of student and parent participation and community support, and their flexibility and personal responsiveness. Methodologies of student tracking, dependence on purchased materials, and specialization can actually be disruptive in small schools. And, urban-based training tends not to examine the roots of many difficulties facing rural schools and communities including cultural devaluation and public and economic policies.

Suggestions for Teacher Training for Rural Schools.

1) Practicums with real responsibiities should be provided in rural schools for prospective teachers.

2) Information about rural schools should be incorporated into history and philosophy of education classes. This should include a strong historical perspective and should emphasize the diversity and contributions of rural schools, communities, and culture. These courses should seek to overcome the prejudices many people feel toward rural areas.

3) Prospective teachers should be provided with factual information about funding, certification, taxation, and public and educational policies and their effects on rural schools. Like any good academic discipline this should contain analysis and criticism of the education profession itself in constant efforts to inform and improve its practitioners.

4) Teachers, administrators, and students from rural schools should be invited to speak to groups of prospectives teachers.

5) Prospective teachers should be introduced to teaching methods which are not heavily dependent on purchased materials and which take advantage of the characteristic strengths of small and rural schools.

6) Prospective teachers should be introduced to interactive teaching technologies so that they have an open and imaginative attitude about the use of alternative and distance learning strategies.

IV. FUNDING. Most state funding strategies rely on some version of a "head count" formula which allots a designated number of dollars and/or teacher units per child in the school district. For example, a district with 1,000 students might earn 40 teacher units, one for every 25 students, $200 of instructional money per teacher, $10 in library allotment per child, and $15 per transported child. On the surface this appears to be an equitable formula, but it has serious problems, especially for rural school districts.

Problems with Most State Funding Formulae.

1) Head-count based formulae do not acoount for the costs of sparsity. These costs include transportation which is generally reimbursed at a fixed rate regardless of the distance involved. Many rural districts do not earn enough in their state formula to cover the costs of all the specialists and support personnel required by the state.

2) Head-count formulae do not account for variations in local ability to supplement state funds with local revenues. In some states, such as Alabama, state tax laws severely limit the revenues which rural counties can raise by virtually prohibiting the adequate taxation of property, the only commodity rural counties have which can produce significant public revenue. Head-count formulae also fail to account for the variations in school facilities and resources that develop over time as a result of tremendous variations in local public and private wealth. (Examples provided in oral presentation.)

3) Small rural schools often have tremendous variations in enrollment across grade levels. It would be no surprise to have a fourth grade with 37 students and a second grade with twelve. Current formulae are not flexible enough to accommodate these grade to grade fluctuations in which students cannot be spread out over several classes as in larger schools.

4) Most state formulas are inflexible. They stipulate how all funds are to be spent leaving little room for decision-making which might re-allocate funds for expenditures more beneficial to the local school.

5) Head count formulae contain intrinsic consolidation incentives. They reward the aggregation of students in one place by reducing the total number of specialists, building-level administrators and support personnel required of a school district. (Example provided in oral presentation.) They fail, however, to account for the human and transportation costs incurred.

Solutions to the Problems of Funding for Rural and Small Schools.

1) Funding formulae should include a weight for sparsity. Distance costs money and rural students should not be penalized because they live further away from each other than their more urban counterparts. This weight, for reasons which will be addressed, should not be an incentive for consolidation.

2) State formulas and taxation policies should be more flexible with regard to local ability. This may involve allowing local communities more authority in levying taxes; it could provide additional financial support for schools in poor communities. It should not, however, carry with it increased state control of local schools which will tend toward "one best model" interferences. Neither should it do away with local districts by aggregating them into several large districts where spending is equalized across districts but remains unequal between schools. It should be borne in mind that high quality schools tend to be located in communities with a high degree of local support and involvement.

3) The State should provide funding for all those specialists and support personnel positions it requires each school to have.

4) Funding formulae should be much more flexible. They should include provisions which account for grade to grade variations in class size which will occur in rural schools. They should allow local schools and school districts much more latitude to determine how to best spend funds in their schools. (Examples provided in oral presentation.) Funding formulae should support the use of innovative teaching stategies such as interactive technologies, multi-grade groupings, and new curriculum development. These innovations are needed in rural schools.

5) State budgetary processes should account for a variety of public costs influenced by schooling arrangements but not reflected in education budgets. For example, the costs to society of drop outs, the loss of local businesses, and rural outmigration which occurs when rural schools are closed.

V. ACCREDITATION. Accreditation standards are generally based on "inputs", that is on what is put into a particular school. These include such inputs as number of books in the library, type of lab facilities, number of specialist teachers, and even the number of students. The trouble with these standards is they have little bearing on the quality of what comes out of the school. (Jonathan Sher, Class Dismissed: Examining Nebraska's Rural Education Debate) By their standardized "one best model" approach, accreditation standards often contravene the best possibilities of rural schools.

Common Problems of Accreditation Standards.

1) Input standards reflect more than anything the affluence of the school district. They suggest that economic resources, almost by themselves, will educate students. They do not account for how these resources are used or how schools without them might be using innovative strategies for educating their students.

2) Public school accreditation standards in many states require a certain number of students to even be considered for accreditation. These standards make no attempt to justify their claim that students only learn well when surrounded by a designated number of other children of exactly the same age. Neither do they account for the costs to students of aggregating the designated number of children together in one place in rural areas. In Alabama, for example, proposed "performance based" accreditation standards would require every high school to have a least 58 students per grade.

3) "Performance-based" standards often only measure scores on standardized tests and require that a certain percentage of students attain a minimum score. These standards do not account for the weak ability of standardized tests to measure the achievement of poor, culturally different, and minority youngsters. They do not account for the purely practical consideration that for every above average score there are a roughly equal number of below average scores. Nor do they account for the detrimental effects of a test-oriented curriculum.

4) Accreditation standards frequently contain no way to credit the innovative efforts of schools and so reward the same old practices.

Some Alternative Approaches to School Accreditation.

1) Beyond expecting a minimal level of "inputs" which insure basic safety, accreditation should be based more on what Jonathan Sher calls "throughputs". These include the following: A) strong, positive leadership; B) high expectations of students and teachers; C) respectful relationships among student, teachers and administrators; D) individualized instruction and attention; E) an emphasis on academic basics; F) parental/community involvement and support; G) fair and frequent feedback to both students and teachers; H) friendly classroom and school climate; I) a healthy balance of activities fostering the intellectual physical, emotional and social development of students; and J) a tolerance for individual intitiatives and for trying new approaches to learning. (Sher, Class Dismissed) All of these "throughput" are attained *at least* as easily in a small school located in close proximity to its community.

2) Accreditation standards should move away from such arbitrary regulations as a minimum number of students per grade and full-time specialists regardless of the size of the school or the need for those specialists.

3) Accreditation standards should not hold schools to single models of acceptability. They should recognize innovation, effort, imaginative use of available resources, and the responsiveness of the school to the needs of its particular students and its particular community.

VI. CONSOLIDATION. Consolidation is both the result of and the underlying incentive for many of the previously mentioned policies. It is based on two basic tacit assumptions. The first is that "bigger is better". The second is that rural is somehow backward. A quick perusal of the literature and history of consolidation will inform the reader of the deep roots of these beliefs. It will bring to light the original purpose of consolidation to break the cultural, familial and community ties of immigrant and rural young people. School consolidation advocates today assert that larger schools make available more courses at less cost. There are, however, a number of problems associated with consolidation in rural areas.

Problems of Consolidation in Rural Areas.

1) Consolidation does not account for the human and financial costs of aggregating students in rural areas. It is expensive both in dollars and time to bus students long distances. The costs of transportation often outweigh any savings which might occur by putting students together in one facility.

2) Consolidation assumes that curricular additions will naturally occur and that they will be beneficial. In fact, curricular additions are generally insignificant as a result of consolidation. There is increasing skepticism as to how important a large range of student electives is to a quality education. (Examples provided in oral presentation.)

3) Consolidation does not account for the effects on students of the time involved in their travel, the reduced opportunities for participation afforded them (examples provided in oral presentation), or the personal atmosphere of the small school which is lost.

4) Consolidation does not account for the effects on communities of the loss of their schools. These effects are tremendous because the school is a rural community's basic economic and social resource. Its closure almost always affects local businesses, the access to services of community residents, and the community's ability to maintain its cohesiveness.

Some Alternatives to Consolidation.

1) It is important for rural school practitioners and public policy makers to recognize the strengths of small schools. These include the following: A) strong community and parent support; B) high levels of student participation and the personal and skill development which accompanies involvement; C) low levels of student disciplinary problems, vandalism, substance abuse, and drop-outs; D) the ability of small schools to draw students into core academic courses; E) the ability of small schools to be flexible, to know personally all its students, and to tailor academic and personal responses to individuals; and F) the maturity that comes to students from being known and therefore accountable, from being expected to participate and achieve, and from having to learn to get along with a variety of people.

2) The long-term savings to society which result from these advantages of small schools should be acknowledged.

3) Many promising education strategies such as peer tutoring, hands-on activities, parent involvement, cooperative learning, and local curriculum development can occur easily in the context of a small school.

4) The development of interactive technologies, generalist teacher certifications, multi-age student groupings, and curriculum appropriate for local communities eliminate the need for consolidation to meet "one best model" standards, add courses, or save money. These strategies are much more future-oriented than the backward-looking, fossil fuel dependent model of the school bus which is the symbol of consolidation.

SOME FINAL RESPONSES.

It is clear that many of our "one best model" policies are detrimental to small and rural schools. They force schools to be things which they cannot be without serious harm to rural students and to the educational process. Beyond the risk these policies pose to rural kids and communities, the values which underpin them may pose risks to our entire educational endeavor. These values are worth examining. The first is elitism. A tracked, pyramidal model of schooling evoked by a dual diploma system suggests that for some to excel others must not. The limited number of opportunities for participation and recognition available to students in large high schools further insures that opportunities will go to those students whose abilities and confidences are most obvious. These circumstances suggest to students that individual achievement and recognition are all-important and can only be attained by some if denied to others. Elitism is not only antithetical to rural it is antithetical to American democracy, to an American value that all people are expected and entitled to achieve and to take part. A second value which may be unwittingly fostered is passivity. Large schools force most students into the role of spectator rather than active participant. They instill in students the notion that they cannot take part and that their own actions cannot bring about significant results (unless those actions are intentionally disruptive). Third, large, tracked, and specialized schools divide students into homogenous groups. They undercut students' abilities to understand, appreciate, and get along with other kinds of people. The isolation of people from one another which occurs in large anonymous settings contributes to unhealthy personal and group behavior. Finally, by imposing only one model of acceptable schooling, educational and cultural diversity is limited. The skills, insights, and perspectives of diversity are lost. These values do not bode well for the future of democratic society nor for entrepreneurial activity.

A serious re-thinking of educational policy is needed. It must not only allow but encourage diversity. It should esteem the traditions of particular communities and indigenous cultures while it encourages innovation. It must examine the basic and historical values of democracy and consider how these are reflected (or not) in the structures and methods through which we school our young people. Quality education begins at the local level with commitments and skills of local people; it requires that the local place be known. It cannot be mandated from a centralized bureaucracy. This approach to quality education risks local failures, but it avoids the catastrophe of national failure which we are risking with many of our current educational policies. Rural schools are in good stead to meet this challenge, but they must be protected from broad policies which contravene their strengths or do away with them altogether. There is much to be learned from and about small rural schools. It is time we get about this task

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Doris F. Fitzgerald
Co-Presenter: Judy Bates
Marlyn Mecca
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

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Developmentally Appropriate Whole Language The Whole Way: Addressing the Literacy Problem for At-Risk Students

Students need to feel that school is a place where their needs for fun, freedom, power and love are being met. Yet, many rural, at-risk students feel instead, helpless, powerless, fearful and threatened. They engage in negative thinking and have an external locus of control which has been well developed over a period of years in both homes and schools. These attitudes and beliefs carry over into their acquisition of communication skills as well. Perhaps it is time to examine language acquisition and use in these rural and disadvantaged areas and offer alternatives. Whole language the whole way offers such a choice. In the words of Mark Twain, " A habit cannot be tossed out the window. It must be coaxed down the stairs a step at a time." Such is the recommended developmental approach which must begin with early years and continue through postsecondary education. Not only will students learn through whole language, teachers must develop the necessary attitudes and knowledge base. What follows is one small college's response to the issue of literacy through the whole language approach or whole language the whole way.

Rationale

Lander College is a publicly supported, fully accredited, four-year college of liberal arts and sciences located in the Piedmont section of South Carolina not far from the foothills of the Smoky Mountains. The seven counties it serves are Abbeville, McCormick, Saluda, Edgefield, Laurens, Newberry and Greenwood. The demographic characteristics of the service area provide a profile of the students since many are drawn from rural areas of South Carolina and the Piedmont region particularly. These counties are located in the northwestern region of the state. The population of the state is 40% rural, and 45% of the public school students are minority (Hodgkinson, 1990). There are no major interstate highways reaching into this area and lack of a comprehensive public rural transportation system is a restrictive barrier to a large segment of the citizens in this region. The remote location of this service area partly accounts for the cultural and economic deprivation of the families who live here.

The service area is comprised of a substantial number of low income minority and disadvantaged citizens who have not been served by traditional postsecondary institutions and who have unusually great educational needs. Average per capita income lags dramatically behind the average for the Southeast. In fact, the state of South Carolina ranked 41st in per capita income in the nation in 1988 (Hodgkinson, 1990).

Educational needs are apparent when reviewing the number of adults who completed only 0-8 years of formal education. For those 25 years old or older, their percentages range from a low of 17% in Greenwood to a high of 21% in nearby Laurens. The U. S. Bureau of Census further shows the median years of education for those 25 years old or older to be 12.1. This is an indication of an educational lag in meeting the needs of rural, at-risk students in this geographical area.

The trend of high school dropouts is continuing according to the South Carolina State Department of Education rankings by district, 1988-89. Dropout percentages range from a high of 5.5% in one of the Greenwood districts to a low of 1.9 in one of the Laurens districts. Yet, these percentages represent a loss of great magnitude when translated into lost human potential. The authors believe that the whole language approach to literacy is one way to prevent such loss.

Theoretical Foundations

The term "whole language" was first used in the 1970's to describe an integrated system to support children's language learning (Goodman, 1991). Researchers such as Jerome Harste, Ken Goodman and Carolyn Burke, were using the words "whole language" to explain a different approach to the reading process (Harste, 1991). The process combined the best of what is known about how children learn, how best to teach children and how language learning evolves. Whole language, therefore, is a composite of several theories.

Piaget's constructivist learning theory influences the manner in which whole language theorists view the learner. Piaget described the learner as involved in a process of development (De Vries & Kohlberg, 1987). The process is enhanced by activities and persons in the environment. As a result of this interaction between the environment and development, children construct knowledge naturally because they are searching for meaning in order to make sense of their world.

This search for meaning, according to Frank Smith (1989) is greatly dependent upon how children are taught. Smith is critical of using reading programs (e.g. basals, computer software, activity kits) to teach literacy because these trivialize the reading process and make learning to read and write purposeless. Even more serious, these methods produce the "expectation that learning something is difficult, punishing or unlikely..."(p. 50). If we are going to produce truly literate citizens, we need to return the teaching of reading and writing to teachers and children where it becomes an exercise in pleasure (Smith).

Ken Goodman (1986) reminded us that whole language teachers implement scientific theories based upon research in the areas of language development, linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and education. He also reminded us that the humanistic and scientific bases of whole language are mutually supportive.

Sara Lundsteen (1989) went on from this position to articulate her ideas for building bridges to reading and writing with informational uses of whole language. She built upon Goodman's premise to develop her model which illustrated the bridge between comprehension and composition, which highlighted exposition and which described ways in which teachers could build bridges to reading and written composition through the use of whole language activities.

Dorothy Rubin (1990) described the whole language process as having an emphasis on the "wholeness" of things. While there is no pat formula for developing a whole language program, the teacher utilizes the students' writings or literature to teach the language processes. Skills are not taught in isolation. Instead, everything is presented as a whole. In addition, both students and teachers are empowered as they jointly make curriculum decisions about what should be learned and how it should be learned.

The Process of Change

A series of graduate courses, based upon the views of the theorists discussed above, were developed to address the development of whole language knowledge and skills. These courses were offered to the members of the Greenwood Area Consortium which encompasses ten rural school districts in the seven counties. There were several attractive aspects connected with these courses. Tuition fees were underwritten by the school districts who, in turn, were reimbursed by the South Carolina State Department of Education. Teachers could self-select in enrolling in these courses. The classes were scheduled at a convenient time for teachers since they convened at five in the afternoon or were held during inservice days. In addition, teachers could take the information gained during class immediately back to their own classrooms for implementation and experimentation.

The teachers in these rural school districts voiced their concerns about varying degrees of administrative restraint. A few teachers were fortunate enough to have developed full administrative support for their movement toward whole language in their classrooms. They had developed this support base over a period of several years. The majority of the teachers, however, felt that their power to make curriculum decisions was severely limited by their administrators. Since the teachers in these classes were self-selected, they were evidencing their belief in the viability of the whole language approach for themselves and their students. They were enrolled in these classes to develop their knowledge and skills in whole language. In addition, they found a network which allowed them to identify resource people and materials as well as ideas for gaining administrative and parental support for implementing this language approach. The following sections describe the path taken by these teachers as they searched for ways to meet the needs of at-risk rural students.

Early Childhood Teachers Making the Change

Change is a developmental process and the first step is understanding the need to make a change. As an example, in one of the rural school districts, three kindergarten teachers, six first grade teachers and one fourth grade teacher, with the support of the curriculum director, recognized that a basic skills classroom was not helping children become literate. One of the authors, who has been working primarily in the area of early childhood education, developed a course to guide these same teachers through the change process.

At the time the teachers were experiencing frustration with the basic skills method of teaching, they were also reading about the whole language approach in teacher magazines and journals. Thinking that this approach might have merit, they requested more information on the topic. In response, the curriculum director arranged for several professors of early childhood and elementary education from a nearby university to present workshops to the teachers concerning the theoretical and research bases for the whole language movement. In addition, arrangements were made for the teachers to visit classrooms where the whole language approach was being applied. These events, which occurred during one school year, formed the foundation for the teachers to begin the journey from basic skills to whole language.

Conversion of this kind is a complex process. It is one matter to have the desire and courage to change. It is another to experience the process of change. This requires planning so that the implementation has focus and direction. It was decided that a course in the implementation of whole language would provide the teachers with the knowledge and guidance to implement the process. The curriculum director asked Lander College to create a course that would help interested teachers gradually implement the whole language approach in early childhood classrooms. In addition to regular class meetings, the course would offer a practicum component allowing the professor to periodically visit the classrooms in order to assist teachers with implementation.

The course began with a discussion of the principles of whole language (Mills and Clyde, 1990) with a particular emphasis on whole language as a philosophy, rather than a method or "kit approach" to learning. It was explained to the teachers that this approach influences the way we view children, the presentation of the curriculum, relations with parents and the role of the teacher. It was important, at the very beginning, for teachers to understand that this approach might require them to test beliefs they have held, for most of their teaching careers, about how children learn. It was also emphasized that simply incorporating an array of whole language activities, without the accompanying philosophy, is NOT whole language!

To help the teachers get started, we discussed how to implement some beginning literary activities in their classrooms. Most of the kindergarten and first grade teachers believed they could begin journals using invented spelling, a shared literature event, classroom response circles, class books, language experience stories and a message board. The fourth grade teacher, who had had experience with whole language, added the authoring cycle and written conversation to the above list. Other related topics addressed during that first session were how to manage the whole language classroom, how to assess children's progress using this approach and how to "weave in," or integrate, basic skills.

Before the next class meeting, the professor visited each of the classrooms. As expected, the teachers were all at various stages of beginning whole language. Two first grade teachers had started cautiously with a few whole language activities such as journal writing, writing words to accompany drawings and making a class book. The other first grade teachers began more ambitiously. In addition to the activities listed above, four of the first grade teachers began by creating centers, rearranging the seating arrangement to allow for cooperative grouping, teaching reading through literature and language experience stories and conducting response circles.

In subsequent class sessions, the participants discussed related topics such as the authoring cycle, home school relations, multicultural needs, research on the whole language approach and curriculum webbing. The professor continued with school visits supporting each teacher's individual efforts into whole language.

At the conclusion of the course, four of the ten teachers were successfully operating whole language classrooms. Three of the teachers were combining several whole language activities with basic skills activities. Three others, while using some whole language activities, were still operating basic skills classrooms.

In reviewing the merits of this approach for their children, these early childhood teachers credited whole language with introducing rural students to a variety of printed materials which they would not normally see. Even more interesting, teachers believe this approach, which gives the classroom an air of informality, meets the cultural learning styles of a rural population. As one teacher wrote, "In a rural community, I don't think students like to be pressured. I think the relaxed and natural environment of a whole language classroom helps them learn better."

This degree of change in schools where building principals are not supportive, where an array of reading materials is absent, and where parents are suspicious of new ideas, is hard to come by. This indeed, is a commentary on the courage and commitment of these early childhood teachers.

Elementary and Middle School Teachers Making the Change

Another one of the authors has taught ten graduate courses during the last five years designed to assist teachers in grades K-8 who wished to develop whole language skills. The actual enrollment consisted of teachers with a range of students from programs for four-year olds through students in area high schools. These teachers brought with them a wide array of knowledge, skills, concerns and biases.

Guidelines for these courses were suggested by the staff of the South Carolina State Department of Education. Individual professors were given great latitude in identifying and developing observational methods for diagnosing and assessing students' needs, identifying the characteristics of rural students as they related to language development, developing whole language skills for both teachers and students, developing effective communication techniques to encourage participation of families, and identifying supportive materials and resource persons.

Teachers enrolled in these classes who had early childhood and elementary preparation and experience were further along in their whole language development than teachers at the intermediate, junior high, and senior high school school levels. This might well be attributed to accepted curriculum practices and administrative support present at the early childhood and elementary levels. Teachers at the intermediate and junior high levels were eager to move toward whole language, but felt that they had more inherent problems and less understanding of the process from administrative levels. Among their perceived problems were accountability for skills development, driven by published school test scores, and their notions of being unable to integrate the whole language process across the curriculum due to administrative practices of grouping and scheduling. High school teachers exhibited similar concerns. In addition, they voiced the opinion that this process approach would be less effective for remedial students than for average and gifted/advanced students. Teachers at grade four level and above were unconvinced of any purpose for the use of oral literature or storytelling.

As these teachers participated in the activities of the courses, they began to exhibit movement from a traditional stance toward the whole language process. They engaged in the types of activities described in the section dealing with early childhood, adapting them to the appropriate developmental and interest levels of their students.

As the teachers progressed through the courses, changes became obvious. Teachers reported that they were beginning to feel more confident in their own ability to make curriculum decisions. They were less intimidated by the sword of accountability hanging over their heads. They were becoming insightful and adept at teaching skills in the context of literature and social conversation, rather than in isolation through workbook pages. They also shared many instances of being amazed by the cognitive processes of their students and by the imagination and insight initiated by their students when allowed the freedom of thought that whole language is based upon. A new sense of excitement and a higher level of energy began to emerge. Teachers became more open to ideas as they became more comfortable and thus were able to model this openness for their students. The language rich environment began to take shape as teachers shared the power in their classrooms. Genuine, authentic dialogue, both verbal and nonverbal, appeared and was supported in their classrooms. These teachers are using the process in their classrooms as they and their students daily explore the many possibilities afforded through the whole language approach.

Making the Change at the Secondary Level

Just as whole language recognizes and incorporates a developmental approach to language learning, the progress of whole language through the educational levels also seems to be developmental, arriving at the secondary level after being embraced in early childhood programs and in elementary and middle schools. The level which seems most resistant to change is the secondary school, defined here as grades 9-12.

At this point in time, no specific course has been developed to address whole language at the secondary level. However, the following material might provide a foundation for such a course.

As a professor of preservice teachers at the secondary level in the area of content reading and as a supervisor of secondary student teachers in language arts, the third author has had the opportunity to visit many English and reading classrooms over the past four years. Perhaps the most striking observation was the variety of approaches. The gifted and advanced placement classrooms were in many cases using whole language where students had a voice in what they read, choosing entire works, discussing informally in groups what they were learning, and writing about their questions and discoveries. It was not unusual to find them outside in a wooded area composing original poems as they replicated the conditions under which poets may have written. The college placement classrooms most often were following a traditional approach with one anthology, but at times they also moved toward the philosophy and practice of whole language. The general and lower levels had students with greatest need and those who adapted least well to routine instruction. Yet, it was here that students most often were working individually with basic skills material and worksheets. Reading often involved isolated topics without continuity. There was little discussion and little writing except for completing blanks of skill sheets.

In working with teachers through conducted workshops, the author identified the teachers' desire for alternatives. Their concerns included how to balance creativity in their classrooms with the restrictions of standardized testing requirements, curriculum requirements, and Carnegie Unit restrictions.

The solution at the secondary level would appear to involve two types of change. First, teachers need to be introduced to the whole language approach as an alternative. While many would be receptive, they do not know how to begin. One prohibitive problem is that the teachers themselves are not familiar with available literature. They need to begin with graduate courses or with literature reading exchanges which would allow them to become familiar with resources on many levels and of many types. Next, they need to work with new delivery systems involving grouping and cooperative learning. Writing needs to become an integral part of learning and should be an outgrowth of reading and discussion. Discussion among students and teachers (not the asking and answering of questions) must become an accepted part of the secondary classroom. If it is true that the average student asks one question per month (Rowe, 1972), critical thinking skills and the ability to articulate ideas must be put back into secondary classrooms through discussion. One other aspect of the whole language approach is direct experience. Many rural and disadvantaged students have difficulty in classrooms because they have not had the prerequisite experiences necessary for building backgrounds.

Required teacher expertise can best be built through sustained learning such as a course or series of workshops that build observation, illustration, and feedback into the structure. Brief "how to" staff development programs cannot be the vehicles for such change.

The second aspect of change must come at the administrative level. There must be administrative attitudes that will support changes in teaching methods and delivery systems so necessary in a whole language approach. There must be financial resources for teacher training, direct student experiences, and additional reading materials. There must be time without pressure about test scores while we re-engage rural at-risk students in interesting learning. There may need to be deregulation of schools which would allow flexibility in scheduling blocks of time for integrated learning. With the current crisis in drop-outs in schools, the secondary school might be the level most in need of the whole learning approach to literacy.

Making the Change at the College level

In the 1989-90 academic year, a core of faculty members, many of whom had been involved in writing across the curriculum as a means of improving the language skills of students at Lander College, became concerned about the entire spectrum of language skills of the student body. Since the majority of these students are residents of this rural area, oral language was one of the issues of greatest concern. The Vice President for Academic Affairs appointed a communications committee to study the problem and make recommendations. The committee developed a survey which was sent to the entire faculty concerning the perceived level of language skills of their students. Of the forty-three faculty members who responded, thirty-three said that their students showed deficiencies and the remaining ten said that some of their students showed deficiencies. The types of problems noted were in organizing and articulating thought, in conventions in standard English, and in experience in "adult talk."

Solutions ranged from blaming the high schools and homes to saying that there was no solution. Some faculty thought that the English Department should have the solution; some thought that it was everybody's problem. Individual approaches included ignoring the problem, marking errors, and intensive remediation.

Several conclusions did come from the work of the committee. There was and is definitely a problem, largely growing out of the communication patterns of the rural areas from which students come. The solution would not be a quick or simple one; it must come from the combined efforts of many.

In the School of Education, a whole language course has been proposed to begin to address the issues. Classes would be small, containing no more than fifteen students. The emphasis would be on improving all communication skills, or a whole language approach. Students would select materials of personal interest to read. Professors also would have a large variety of suggested readings just to get students started in the process. The list would include fiction, nonfiction, journal articles, biographies, films, and tapes. The emphasis would be on developing the receiving skills of reading and listening. Students would react to their reading and viewing through many types of writing, including journals. They would also respond through discussion and impromptu talks to the groups. Through videotapes, students would see and hear themselves. Learning logs would provide a record of patterns of errors that students make and examples of how to eliminate these. The environment would be one of acceptance and comfort where students would be allowed to focus on topics and materials of their choice which would relate to their major. The primary purpose would be to help students strengthen both abilities and confidence in all areas of communication. Such a whole language approach would make use of the natural ways in which individuals acquire language skills while recognizing and respecting the interests and individuality of learners at every level. The expectation would be that the whole language approach would prove as effective with adult learners as it has with younger children.

Summary

The authors are in agreement with Ken Goodman (1986) when he states that "We're a long way from where we should be" (p. 59). The movement from a traditional program to a whole language approach is just beginning in these rural schools. Lander College is playing a leading role in this developmental change by offering whole language courses to teachers in a manner that supports the context in which they teach. All of us are in the process of becoming whole language teachers in whole language environments. The process is on-going. Gordon Allport (1955) would remind us that all of life is the process of becoming.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: James Chalfant
Co-Presenter: Margaret Pysh
Ron Miros
Ed Bradshaw
Sharon Adams
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

TEACHER ASSISTANCE TEAMS:
Supporting At-Risk Students in Rural Areas
A Three Year Plan

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This paper describes the sequence of events followed by the Arkansas Department of Education and 55 local educational agencies to implement Teacher Assistance Teams (TAT) throughout the state of Arkansas over a three year period. This project represents the effective blending of Federal, State, local and University consultants and resources. It is hoped the ideas and information shared in this paper will be helpful to other educators serving students in rural areas.

PHASE ONE: Planning

The Arkansas three year action plan was initiated when Dr. Margaret Van Dusen Pysh, an Illinois school administrator and Dr. James C. Chalfant, University of Arizona professor, were invited to speak to the Arkansas Department of Education about the implications and benefits of establishing their Teacher Assistance Team Model in Arkansas schools (Chalfant & Pysh, 1981, 1989; Chalfant, Pysh & Moultrie, 1979). Following their presentation, the Arkansas Department of Education (ADE) determined that the presence of such teams offered several potential benefits to Arkansas such as: providing a support and collaboration system for teachers; serving as a preventive measure for "at-risk" students and for assisting in mainstreaming special education students; addressing discipline problems in schools; empowering teachers through new perceptions, skills, and behaviors; enhancing building morale; producing changes in teachers' perceptions, skills, and inter-personal behaviors; and reducing referral rates and cost.

After establishing the need and selecting the Teacher Assistance Team model to help meet those needs, a three year action model was developed and support and resources were committed to implement the plan.

PHASE TWO: Obtaining Administrative Support

Administrative support for teams is a critical factor in their development. Arkansas Department of Education support consisted of allocating Title VI-D Federal grant monies funding consultant costs for training and school districts' expenses for travel and meals for four team members for the one day training and one day follow-up session. Additionally, personnel from the Arkansas Special Education Resource Center (ASERC) were identified to coordinate TAT, conduct on site orientations and regional team network meetings.

The following commitments were required from the local level administrators. Before training, the Superintendent of each school district agreed in writing to:

1. Scheduling an orientation with the building site faculty
2. Providing release time for three (3) team members and the principal for two (2) days:
    - a) training - 1 day (October)
    - b) follow-up - 1 day (spring)
3. Funding substitutes for team members to attend training and follow-up
4. Providing additional release time of two (2) half days for team leaders to network
5. Funding substitutes and travel for team leaders to attend network meetings for two (2) half days
6. Allowing the building principal to adjust schedules for team members to meet
7. Providing evaluation data to determine the effectiveness of the teams including:
    - a) a summary of students served
    - b) the number of objectives attempted and achieved
    - c) the number of students referred to special education and placed or found to be eligible after going through TAT

PHASE THREE: Training Pilot Site Teams

Awareness sessions were conducted with local district administrators by ADE and ASERC personnel to discuss how to determine the need for a TAT team in their schools. Faculty orientations were held in schools where administrators perceived a need. Schools whose faculty were interested in the model were asked to make the commitments described above. Initially, school districts with an identified overrepresentation of minority students in special education were specifically invited by the Arkansas Department of Education to attend the first training session; six pilot school districts accepted.

Drs. Pysh and Chalfant trained the schools in the TAT model: six teams in the fall of 1988; nineteen teams in the fall of 1989; and 33 teams in the fall of 1990. Some districts trained additional teams or trained several teams. As of Fall 1990, out of 61 teams trained, 55 were operating and only six districts which were trained did not have teams in operation. Four of these districts were districts which were encouraged to attend the training to address their problems. The other districts were self-selected with voluntary, initial administrative support and commitment before training.

The initial Pysh and Chalfant training consisted of the following content:

1. Describing student behavior and classroom situations
2. Analyzing and conceptualizing student needs
3. Applying communication/collaboration principles
4. Negotiating and writing goals
5. Conducting efficient and effective problem solving meetings
6. Brainstorming strategies
7. Measuring student progress
8. Providing on-going follow-up
9. Planning and development activities

PHASE FOUR: Implementing Teams

Following the training, the team members elected in each school developed their organizational, operational, and documentation procedures. This included: determining the mission or purpose of the team and establishing operational and practical procedures for:

1. Pre-meeting activities
2. Conducting meetings
3. Systematic follow-up, and
4. Forms to be used

Teams field tested their procedures on one case, revised procedures or forms as necessary and then began serving the teachers' needs in their school.

PHASE FIVE: Technical Assistance Network

In order to assist teams in resolving their problems, a TAT coordinator was employed through ASERC. Nine existing consultants for students with serious emotional disturbances were also utilized to provide technical assistance to the teams and guide networking within their respective six regions. Each SED consultant was assigned the following responsibilities:

August	present faculty overview when scheduled
October	participate in TAT training with implementing teams
October	participate in technical assistance meetings with State project consultants (Drs. Pysh and Chalfant)
October-early November	visit each site a minimum of two (2) times to assist in developing team procedures and getting the team ready for implementation of the model
December	Network meeting with team leaders
January	visit each site and provide technical assistance
February	Network meeting with team leaders visit each site - and provide technical assistance
March	follow-up meeting with State project consultants (Drs. Pysh and Chalfant)
May	visit each site, collect evaluation data
June	submit data to ASERC by June 15
-	keep minutes at network meetings for possible dissemination, a copy of the minutes should be submitted to ASERC five (5) days after the network meeting

The TAT teams or leaders from each team met and networked regionally with their SED consultants. They discussed their successes and identifed the problems they had encountered, shared solutions or attempted together to seek alternatives to handle these problems. Teams often had encountered similar problems and it was not uncommon for one of the teams to have discovered a solution to the problem which could be shared with teams who had not yet resolved the problem.

PHASE SIX: Follow-up Training

After approximately six to nine months of operation, follow-up training was provided for teams by Drs. Pysh and Chalfant, the State project consultants. This training was designed to respond to the stated needs of the team members obtained in a survey. The typical follow-up training consisted of the following content:

1. Organizational Issues
    - Time Management
    - Paperwork
    - Team Structure
2. Staff Attitudes and Reluctance
3. Membership Issues
4. Incentive Issues
5. Follow-up
6. Idea Generation and Resource Acquistion
7. Evaluation
8. Communication/Collaboration Skills

PHASE SEVEN: Advanced Training

After a year or two of experience, teams were ready for advanced training. This third level of training was directed toward specific content areas identified by experienced teams. Advanced training was intended to provide more in-depth knowledge and skills in working with teachers and students. Typical advanced training includes such content as:

A. Specific intervention strategies for improving students:
    - self esteem
    - work habits
    - conduct/behavior problems
    - academic content skills

B. Group dynamics
    - consultation/collaboration skills
    - communication skills

C. Responding effectively to resistant, interfering teacher beliefs

D. Measuring student progress

E. Team sharing and exchange

EVALUATION

An effort was made to survey the participating teams in Spring, 1990 to obtain information about the extent of their efforts and their effectiveness. Teams reported serving 1,393 students with some schools designing school-wide strategies. Only 13 students were referred to special education for testing and six of those students were declared eligible for special education services. The survey questions were not as clearly written as they needed to be so the data describing the number of students helped by the teams and the extent of the resolution of their problems was considered unclear and is, therefore, not being reported.

The network meetings were reported to be very beneficial. On a five point rating scale, teams judged network meetings as beneficial in four areas:

the process of TAT (4.4)

sharing ideas (4.9)
additional intervention strategies (4.2)
developing support systems (3.3)
sharing classroom strategies (3.9)

In November 1990, a new Data Collection Manual was created by the ASERC to obtain information which will more accurately describe the impact of the Teacher Assistance Teams on teachers and students as well as describe the continued activities and development of the teams.

Preliminary effectiveness data collected in Fall, 1990, showed 19 teams reporting 88 problems brought to teams between August and December of 1990. Of these, 12 problems were building related, ie. facilities, scheduling, etc.; 76 problems were student related with classroom/interpersonal behaviors representing 45% or 34 of the problems discussed. Academics was the second most common student problem accounting for 16 or 21% of the problems. Of the 69 student cases reporting demographics, the cases fell into the following race and age categories:

Racial Breakdown of TAT Cases

56 or	81%	White
12 or	18%	Black
1 or	1%	Asian

Ages of Students handled by TAT

5 - 6 yrs.	11
7 - 8 yrs.	16
9 - 10 yrs.	19
11 - 12 yrs.	6
13 - 14 yrs.	9
15 - 16 yrs.	7

Of the 77 cases on which outcome data was reported:

23 or 30% were successfully resolved.

30 or 40% were partially resolved.

11 or 14% were partially resolved and referred to special education.

8 or 10% were partially resolved and referred to another resource.

4 or 5% were referred directly to special education.

1 or 1% was referred directly to another resource.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of our Arkansas experience reinforce previous research that Teacher Assistance Teams can support and enhance the collaboration and empowerment of teachers, address student and school-wide problems, provide preventive intervention for "at risk" students, and identify appropriate referrals to special education (Chalfant & Pysh, 1981, 1989; Chalfant, Pysh & Moultrie, 1979; Hayek, 1987).

For successful implementation, participation of schools must be voluntary. Administrators and teachers should not be pressured to establish teams. The principal is a critical factor in initiating and maintaining teams. Some teams were discontinued when a new principal joined the building. When a new principal enters a building with an existing team, efforts must be made immediately to familiarize the new principal with the model. Principals can then decide based upon sufficient information whether or not they wish to continue a TAT team in their building. A high percentage of teams encouraged to adopt the model did not follow-through presumably because they did not perceive a need for a team.

Systematic initial and follow-up training is essential. Initial training is most effective if conducted in late September or October. Mid-year training is not as beneficial since less time is available to establish teams.

Another critical factor in creating team success is on-going support and contact after training. Immediately following the training, contact must be established with teams to support their efforts and advise them during the first critical weeks/months in developing their team. Implementation is enhanced significantly by a network of teams coordinated with State resource personnel.

A simple and easily understood evaluation plan is essential to provide data for determining team effectiveness and to build a case for future administrative support to maintain effective teams.

Establishing and maintaining effective teams requires a minimum three year plan of: voluntary local administrative and building principal commitment; thorough initial and follow-up training; a system for team support and networking; and an evaluation system which provides useful data for measuring team effectiveness and efficiency, and provides information for future planning.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Joyce A. Meikamp
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

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JOB SATISFACTION OF RURAL SPECIAL AND REGULAR EDUCATION TEACHERS

Introduction

National studies of teacher supply and demand suggest that critical shortages will exist during the 1990s in many areas (Darling-Hammond, 1984). Roughly 250,000 special education teachers are employed across the United States. Attrition rate figures for qualified, experienced teachers have reported to vary from 6 to 30 to 60 percent (AFT,1983; NAE, 1983; Ysseldyke & Algozzine, 1982).

In particular, shortages for special educators have been cited throughout the United States (Smith-Davis et al., 1984). Additionally these shortages are further complicated by the use of temporary out-of-field permits to hire teachers (Phypho, 1986; Smith-Davis, 1985). Rural areas are especially hard hit where attrition rates for special educators may be as high as 50 percent yearly (Helge, 1984).

Special educators are frequently cited as being particularly vulnerable to such job related difficulties as burnout, low salaries, and discipline problems (Lombardi & Donaldson, 1988). Additionally such factors as work overload, lack of perceived teaching success, relationships with administrators, and inadequate teacher preparation may be contributing to the dilemma.

Yet for teachers in general across the United States morale may be improving. In the **Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher 1987**, conducted by Louis Harris & Associates (cited by Kate, 1988), 85 percent of teachers said they were satisfied with their jobs. Teachers reportedly planning to leave the profession in the next five years dropped from 27 percent in 1983 to 22 percent in 1987. Similarly, Lombardi and Donaldson (1988) reported that 88 percent of 54 rural special educators found teaching in special education to be a satisfying career.

However, these findings do not appear to support the high attrition figures reported for special educators (e.g., Helge, 1984). Given the increasing job satisfaction of educators in general, do rural educators differ in their levels of job satisfaction? The present investigation compared the job satisfaction levels of rural regular and special education teachers.

METHOD

Subjects

The sample for this study consisted of 54 randomly selected regular education teachers and all of the special education teachers (54) presently employed in a rural county public education system in north central West Virginia. A total of 108 teachers currently teaching at the elementary, junior high, and high school levels were contacted via the mail.

They were asked to complete a demographics sheet and a 90 item **Job Descriptive Index**

(JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969). The JDI, along with a cover letter and self-addressed stamped envelope, was sent to the teachers. The letter requested the subject's assistance, assured confidentiality, and indicated a deadline of two weeks hence for returning the completed questionnaire.

Dependent Variable

The **Job Descriptive Index** (Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1969) was utilized to examine the job satisfaction levels of regular and special education teachers. This instrument measures the following six elements of the work situation: (1) Work on the Present Job (2) Present Pay (3) Opportunities for Promotion (4) Supervision in Present Job (5) Co-Workers, and (6) Job in General.

Other researchers (e.g., Lombardo & Lombardo, 1987) have used the JDI for measuring the job satisfaction of employees in human services organizations. Bridges (1980) suggested that certain researchers have indicated the JDI is the most valid measure of job satisfaction in current use.

Data Analysis

The data generated from this study were analyzed using a 2-Tailed t-test. Total raw scores from the JDI across all six factors were used to compare the job satisfaction of rural regular and special education .

RESULTS

Results of the statistical analysis indicate that there is no significant difference between the job satisfaction of rural regular and special education teachers. A t value of .17 (df=68) was obtained. A mean of 171.3 (SD=44.4) for rural special educators was not statistically different from the mean of 169.3 (SD=54.6) for regular educators.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of this investigation indicated there were no significant differences between the over all job satisfaction levels of rural special and regular education teachers. Apparently these teachers have a similar level of job satisfaction.

One possible explanation for these findings is that teacher morale may be increasing in rural areas. This is encouraging given that in the past, keeping special education teachers in the classroom was a problem in rural areas. These shortages have been disproportionately larger for the counties of West Virginia. The West Virginia Department of Education (WVDOE, 1985) has reported that many special education positions are occupied by teachers working on out-of-field permits with numerous new endorsements being granted each year. If indeed teacher morale is increasing and rural special and regular education teachers have similar levels of job satisfaction, will rural teacher attrition rates improve?

Additional research needs to investigate the correlates of job satisfaction. For example, the relationship between such factors as pay, co-workers, and administrators is worthy of study. Moreover, level of education and place of residence may also moderate the job satisfaction levels of special and regular education teachers.

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ACRES PRESENTATION

Presenter: Glen L. McCuller
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Day: March 19, 1991
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Transition for Students with Learning Disabilities in Four Rocky Mountain States

Transition for Students with Learning Disabilities in Four Rocky Mountain States

The transition from school to the community has taken on increasing importance for students receiving special education services in our schools. Early work in the area of transition has concentrated on students with severe disabilities (e.g., Kelker & Hagen, 1986; McDonnell & Hardman, 1985). Few would disagree that the transition from school to the community is a critical factor for students with severe disabilities; however, researchers are beginning to recognize that the transition process is equally critical for students with milder disabilities, including learning disabilities (Cobb & Hasazi, 1987; Szymanski & Danek, 1985).

Historically, students with learning disabilities have received preparation for adult life by taking school courses in vocational education (Klein, Moses, & Altman, 1988; Okolo & Sitlington, 1986; White, 1985). When these students leave the school system, they move into services provided by the Vocational Rehabilitation system in each state, where services are mandated to be time-limited (Agran & Moore, 1987; Szysmanski & Danek, 1985). In order to meet the time limit nature of Vocational Rehabilitation services, exiting students are referred to higher education programs or to sheltered workshops. However, recent research indicates that individuals with learning disabilities continue to experience problems in transitioning to employment (Hasazi, Gordon, & Roe, 1985; Mithaug, Horiuchi, & Fanning, 1985). These problems are particularly true of students with disabilities who have attended school in rural communities throughout the country (Kelker & Hagen, 1986; Porterfield, 1989). Porterfield discussed the difficulties experienced by individuals with disabilities when moving from school to more independent living in the community, services available decrease. The experiences described by Porterfield are similar to those experienced in rural communities across the country.

One method used to address these problems experienced by students with learning disabilities in the transition from school to work is the implementation of systematic transition plans (Cobb & Hasazi, 1987; Tindall, 1983). The transition planning process allows schools to systematically prepare students with disabilities for community life by prescribing specific coursework and establishing linkages with adult services prior to leaving the school system.

While the systematic approach to transition implied by specific transition plans for each student with disabilities has been beneficial, questions still remain unanswered as to how the process is best implemented (White, 1985). For example, some researchers are beginning to question the efficacy of transition planning beginning in high school instead of at an earlier stage of students' school experience (Gillet, 1988; Moore, Agran, & McSweyn, 1990). For example, Rusch and Phelps (1987) indicated that transition activities typically started in the last two years of high school. Moore et al. advocated for establishing transition plans early in each student's school experience in order to systematically build career education components into each educational program. Indeed, they recommended that career exploration and linkages between academic programs and vocational programs begin in the elementary grades.

In order to assess the degree to which special educators in rural school districts were implementing transitional programs for their students with learning disabilities, we surveyed teachers in four states; Montana, Idaho, Utah, and Wyoming. The results of this survey are reported in this article.

Methods

Sample

Randomly selected teachers in rural school districts from four Rocky Mountain states (Mountana, Idaho, Utah, and Wyoming) were participants in this investigation. For this study, rural communities were defined as those with less than 10,000 citizens. Survey instruments were mailed to a total of 117 special education teachers identified by teacher lists generated from Departments of Education in the four states. Instruments were sent to 30 teachers in Montana, 21 teachers in Utah, 31 in Wyoming, and 35 teachers in Idaho. Approximately 48% of the teachers returned the survey instrument after the initial mailing; consequently, we sent a second mailing to the nonresponding teachers. The second mailing resulted in an additional return rate of 57%. However, the second mailing went out at approximately the end of the school term in the spring. We believed that this limited the return rate, so we sent a third mailing after school reconvened in the fall. Following the third mailing, we obtained responses from 76 teachers (approximately 65%).

Instrument

The survey instrument was devised by the third author. It consisted of 25 questions, the first 15 of which were used to identify demographic, educational and training information (including training in transition issues) from the responding teachers. The next eight questions concerned specific transition services provided by the teachers and/or their schools. Specifically, this section asked respondents to provide information on (a) the age at which transition planning was initiated for students with learning disabilities, (b) the participants in the transition planning process, (c) the skills, jopbs, job requirements, and/or support services assessed, (d) the types of goals and objectives identified, and (e) the professional who had primary responsibility for the transition plan. Finally, the last two questions asked the respondents to judge the importance of several attributes of transition. All questions required a simple tally response, except the last question which required teachers to rank order the five most important transition planning issues.

Interrater Reliability

Approximately 25% of the survey forms were tallied independently by two different people. Totals were compared and the number of agreements was divided by the number of agreements and the number of disagreements. This dividend was then multiplied by 100 to give a percentage of interrater reliability. Interrater reliability was computed to be 98%.

Results

The teachers in this study were primarily resource room teachers in both elementary and secondary schools (See Table 1). Several teachers responding to this question reported teaching in both elementary and secondary classrooms, and several reported teaching both in resource and self-contained classrooms. Forty-six respondents reported having Bachelors degrees and 22 reported having Masters degrees. Two respondents, both special education administrators, reported doctoral level degrees, with the remaining reporting "Other" levels of education. Only two respondents reported one year or less experience, nine reported 1-3 years, 11 reported 3-5 years, and 51 teachers reported more than five years teaching experience.

Table 1 Teacher Placement by State.

Current Placement	Elementary Resource	Secondary Resource	Elementary Self-Contain	Secondary Self-Contain
Idaho	8	11	3	1
Wyoming	6	7		2
Montana	7	3	2	3
Utah	6	2	3	2
TOTALS	27	23	8	8

Of the teachers responding to the question pertaining to inservice training on transition, 25 (36%) had received no training at all. On the question pertaining to college courses on transition taken, 42 (57%) of the respondents reporting indicated that their college education contained no vocational transition coursework.

Table 2 displays the ages at which transition planning generally starts in the schools from which each teacher reported. Twenty (28%) of the teachers responding to this question indicated that transition planning was not applicable to their students. and four teachers (6%) indicated that they did not know the age at which transition planning was initiated. However, 29 teachers (41%) indicated that transition planning was initiated prior to age 15, and 12 teachers (17%) indicated that the transition plan was initiated before 10 years of age.

Table 2 Age at Which Transition Planning is Implemented, by State.

Age	<10	10-12	13-14	15-16	17-18	>18	NA	Don't Know
Idaho	2	1	7	4	2		4	3
Wyoming	3	1	5	4			6	1
Montana	2	1	1	5	3		4	1
Utah	5		1				6	
TOTAL	12	3	14	13	5		20	5

When we asked teachers to identify the long range goals of transitional planning for students with learning disabilities, 25% of the teachers responding indicated that long range transitional goals were not applicable for their programs. However, 18% of the teachers indicated that skills training was an important long range goal, 16% indicated that the level of independence the student would obtain on the job was important, and 11% indicated that training students to do several different jobs was an important long range goal.

Similarly, when asked to identify short term transitional objectives, 25% of the teachers responding to this question reported that short term transitional objectives were not applicable to their programs. Ninteen percent indicated that skills training was important, 11% indicated that ongoing supports on the job was important, and 13% indicated that the level of independence attained from a job was an important short term goal. Thirty-six percent of the teachers indicated that the secondary resource or self-contained teacher should be responsible for implementing the transitional planning goals and objectives. It is important to note that only one teacher in the sample indicated that a formal, district-wide transition planning form was in use.

Finally, Table 3 displays the mean ratings of the relative importance of factors effecting transition planning. Most of the responding teachers rated each item relatively highly on a scale ranging from "1=unimportant" to "5=always important." The totals for all categories were at least 4.0, although individual states rated some categories (e.g., Transportation and Career Education) lower than a 4.0 mean rating.

Table 3 Mean Ratings of Importance of Transitional Issues by State.

	Idaho	Wyoming	Montana	Utah	Total
Transportation	4.4	3.9	3.8	4.6	4.1
Case Management	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.6	4.2
Teaching Job Skills	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.7	4.6
Teaching Social Skills	4.8	4.6	4.7	4.9	4.6
Assessing Available Jobs	4.4	3.9	4.3	4.4	4.2
Matching Skills to the Job	4.7	4.1	4.5	4.7	4.5
Interagency Cooperation	4.4	4.0	4.6	4.4	4.3
Career Education	4.5	3.8	4.1	3.9	4.0
Involvement of Parents	4.9	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.6
Involvement of Employers	4.5	4.6	4.6	4.7	4.6
Teaching Access to Community Services	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.4
Teaching Job Seeking Skills	4.5	4.0	4.3	4.7	4.3

Although teachers in the four states believed all of the above factors to be important to transitional planning as evidenced by the high mean ratings, when forced to place in rank order the five most important transitional planning issues, priorities became apparent. When the data were analyzed, the five most important issues were listed as (1) teaching social skills, (2) teaching job skills, (3) matching skills to the job, (4) involvement of parents, and (5) case management. The least important issues were career education, access to community services and transportation.

Discussion and Conclusions

Several things become clear from the results of this investigation. First, rural special education teachers clearly have not received adequate training in vocational transition issues at either the preservice or inservice levels. Fully 25% of the sample used in this investigation had received no training in transitional issues. This can possibly be explained by the fact that nearly 70% of the teachers had more than five years of experience. When these teachers were in preservice programs, vocational transition may not have been a major focus of their educational programs. However, just as likely is the idea that teacher preparation programs still do not emphasize transitional issues. Rather, they concentrate exclusively on academic subject matter.

Results indicating that rural special education teachers are beginning transition programs at an early age are encouraging. A substantial number of rural special education programs are starting to initiate transitional planning when students are 10 years of age or younger. This is considerably younger than the ages reported by Moore et al. (1990) and Rusch and Phelps (1987). Unfortunately, 20% of the teachers in the current study reported that transition issues were not applicable to their programs. Clearly, more must be done to insure that all teachers are aware of the difficulties students with learning disabilities have in transitioning from the school system.

Even though some of the rural special education teachers were reporting that transitional issues were not applicable to their programs for students with learning disabilities, as a group they responded positively to the identification of issues deemed important to the transition process. However, when they were asked to rank order these issues, there were clearly some issues less important than others. For example, transportation was seen as one of the least important issues. Nonetheless, it would seem appropriate that transportation be placed high on the least of important issues, because the lack of transportation is perhaps the most difficult problem to overcome in rural communities (Kelker & Hagen, 1986).

Overall, we were encouraged by the state of vocational transition planning in rural schools in the Rocky Mountain region. We believe progress is being made. However, we also believe that more must be done in order to insure that students with learning disabilities have appropriate, systematic assistance in making the transition from school to work.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Diane T. Woodrum
Co-Presenter: Louise B. Savage
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

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RETENTION - DOES IT EVER REALLY WORK?
A RURAL DILEMMA

PURPOSE OF THE PAPER

The purpose of this paper is to present the best practices and latest research that support appropriate alternative education programming for children as opposed to non-promotion or retention. The discussions will center around a thorough understanding of the research and careful consideration of the needs of the individual child.

OBJECTIVES OF THE PAPER

At the conclusion of the paper, the reader will be able to (1) identify reasons for school failure; (2) be familiar with best practices that relate to the issue of retention in rural areas; and (3) be familiar with alternative educational instructional programs for children at risk for failure.

BACKGROUND

Every year, over 2 million American school children are retained in the same grade. By the ninth grade, approximately 50% of all students will have been held back at least once. While is is a common practice,a survey of the research literature shows that student retention for the most part, is of questionable educational benefit and may have negative effects on achievement, self-concept, attitudes toward learning, and school drop-out rates.

A recent study conducted by NRSSC and ACRES(Helge, 1990), compared the incidence of various types of at-risk students in rural, urban, and suburban school districts as well as comparing incidences of at-risk students with one or more disabilities. Incidences of various categories of at-risk students at the preschool, elementary, middle and high school levels were also compared. The study defined a student to be "at-risk" if they were involved in one or more of the following categories: substance abuse, suicide attempts/depression/low self-esteem, poverty. children of alcoholics or other substance abuser, illitercy, migrant, school dropout, sexually active/pregnant, volvement with crime, minority and poor, and disability.

Primary findings of the study showed rural school children to be more "at-risk" in both the nonhandicapped and handicapped categories. Rural children fared worse in 34 of the 39 statistical comparisons carried out. Estimates for "at-risk" mildly handicapped students exceeded those for nonhandicapped in most rural school districts. The following table depicts data differences by at-risk category, comparing handicapped and nonhandicapped students. The at-risk categories are listed in decreasing order according to the percentages for handicapped students.

TABLE 1

At-Risk Category	Handicapped	Non-Handicapped
Dysfunctional family	21.1	19.3
Poverty	20.7	18.8
Suicide/depression/ low self-esteem	15.5	13.7
Minority and poor	14.7	12.5
Child,alcoholic parent	11.8	12.2
Child Abuse	9.3	11.4
Migrant	3.6	6.8

(Helge, 1990)

Although both rural and nonrural schools estimated that a large percentage of their students would be at risk, rural school children fared worse than nonrual in 34 of 39 statistical comparisons. Helge suggests that the social and economic strains facing rural students are, perhaps, worse that those facing inner city school children. Furthermore, she feels that the images of rural children leading wholesome, trouble-free lives compared with youth in more crowded settings may therefore need revising.

RURAL FOCUS

Many of the unique issues of rural school program service delivery present challenges to all who work in rural areas and include cultural factors, geographic factors, and socioeonomic factors.

Rural areas for the most part are often characterized by close family ties and a personalized community structure. Rural populations are often seen as fiercely independent citizens who "take care of their own" (Helge, 1990) and the intimacy that characterizes rural settings can in reality contribute to problems.

On the other hand, it is not unusual to find that a support system exists for the school system and the individual students that also extends to the family and the community. This system can provide an unique opportunity to put into place many alternative programs appropriate for child at risk for failure that could not be accomplished elsewhere. Research carried out for the past several decades fails to support retention and in the past almost all students at risk were automatically retained. It is imperative that schools implement more effective strategies that enable at-risk students to succeed in the regular classroom and it could be that the rural area will be more successful at this endeavor than urban areas.

Students tend to be the center of the rural school and a child is more likely to have a positive attudude toward school and himself and less likely to be a discipline problem in the rural area. This in itself, creates the opportunity for intervention and modifications that might not be successful in more urban areas. The rural area has the benefit of volunteers since volunteerism is a valued activity among rural citizens and can become a source of

manpower in the rural service delivery system.

Commonly held beliefs about the use of retention as a delivery system die hard. Many National groups have researched the issue of retention in the last decade. Among these groups are the National Association of School Psychologists and Phi Delta Kappa, an international educational honorary. Overwhelmingly, the research indicates that with few exceptions, retention is likely to yield negative effects.

Recent research indicates that "low achievers rarely catch up." Most children do not catch up when they are retained. In reality, they are likely to fall further and further behind. Some show initial gains following retention, but long-term studies intdicate that these gains gradually dissipate within two or three years. Peers with similar skills fare at least as well academically, and often do better.(Canter, Carey, and Dawson, 1989)

"Retention is generally unsuccessful even at kindergarten or first grade." Although older students who are retained appear to have more negative effects, even retained kindergarten children suffer negative effects. Retention, at any age, is more likely to be harmful than helpful. Transition classes at the kindergarten or first grade levels are simply a type of retention and have not proved to be effective either.(Canter, Carey, and Dawson, 1989)

"Immature children do not benefit from an extra year to grow." Research simply supports the hypothesis that emphasizes that children will not mature faster or adjust better when retained. This also applies to the emotional growth of the child.(Canter, Carey and Dawson, 1989).

"Retained students are more likely to drop out of school." The drop-out rate among retained students is much greater than for similarly achieving students who have never been retained and the probability increases with multiple retentions. (Canter, Carey and Dawson, 1989)

Under some circumstances, retention is less likely to yield negative effects. Children who have positive self concepts and good peer relationships and who have the necessary skills to catch up are less likely to suffer negative effects. Students who have missed a lot of school due to illness or frequent family moves and are no more than one year older than classmates are good candidates for retention. Phi Delta Kappa's national study on children at risk indicated that only if the child had good average cognitive ability and skills necessary to achieve was retention generally successful.

The link between high self-esteem and positive academic grades, school attendance, and social skills must be clearly recognized. The link between poor self-esteem and at-risk conditions must also be recognized.

Effective Service Delivery

If children who are at-risk are to succeed in the mainstream the following may be ways to effectivly deal with the mainstreamed child:

(1) Many teaching strategies will enhance student success. Among these strategies are mastery learning, teacm teaching, peer tutoring, direct instruction, cooperative learning, and CBA. All of the strategies mentioned above have been shown to be effective and to be an aid in producing academic gains in students at all achievement levels. Many modifications may have to be made for the at-risk child such as cutting down the length of assignments if the child works slowly.

(2) Catch the problem early. If the child has problems keeping up with his classmates find ways to help at the early stages of the game as opposed to waiting it out. Observe the child as she/he works and determine what skills are missing so that they may be retaught early to ensure that gaps in skills do not occur.

(3) Establish activities that encourage parents to become involved in school. There are many opportunities for parents to observe instruction, to learn about class assignments, etc. Staff can work with parents to increase their skills so that they can become better "teachers." Parents need to be welcomed as partners.

(4) Seek assistance from the members of the multi-disciplinary team. Teachers can't be expected to win the battle alone. Members of the school MDT(counselor, other teachers, school psychologist, etc) have training and expertise and can support efforts in the classroom and to help involve parents and other support services in the community. It is vitally important that students receive supportive services before they are entrenced in a cycle of failure.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Two-thirds of America's school districts and one-third of the nation's children are rural. These figures dictate that we address the issues of at-risk children in our rural areas now.

In many of our rural areas, conditions that can breed school failure have worsened in recent years. Economic conditions dictate limited employment opportunities and they in turn feed low aspirations regarding graduation and chances for employment. Low-self esteem is rampant under these conditions.

Most of our rural at-risk children exhibit more than one of the "at-risk" characteristics. Typically, however, low-self-esteem and/or the existence of a dysfunctional family overlay all the other characteristics according to Helge's 1989 study which correlated with Phi Delta Kappa's Children At-Risk project.

Parents, teachers,and community members need to learn skills that enable students to gain a feeling of self-worth. A very worthwhile place to start is the questioning of the use of retention or non-promotion to cope with at-risk children in our rural areas.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Dennis L. Cates
Co-Presenter: Lloyd Kinnison
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

Students with Severe to Profound Mental Handicaps and Multiple Disabilities in Rural Schools: Can their Needs be Met?

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Running head: Students with Severe to Profound Mental Handicaps and/or Multiple Disabilities

Abstract

The education of students with severe to profound mental handicaps and/or multiple disabilities may be greatly limited in rural settings. A survey of rural special education cooperatives in a southwestern state revealed that many of these students are being served by teachers who are not certified in the areas of severe/profound handicaps or multiple disabilities. Further, few districts utilize teachers who are certified in mental retardation to teach SPH/MH classes. The survey also indicated a lack of emphasis on ecological or environmental goals in programming for students with severe to profound handicaps. The fact that few districts indicated use of transdisciplinary teaming may be indicative of a lack of understanding of this model rather than a conscious decision to use other models. Results suggest a need for a thorough examination of educational services provided for students with severe to profound mental handicaps and/or multiple disabilities in rural areas.

Students with Severe to Profound Mental Handicaps and/or Multiple Disabilities in Rural Schools: Can Their Needs be Met?

Meeting the needs of students with severe to profound mental handicaps and multiple disabilities has, throughout recent history, been provided in isolated locations (Berres, M. & Knoblock, P., 1987) by programs housed in institutional or self-contained settings (Gaylord-Ross, R. 1989). Indeed, exceptional populations regarded as low-incidence have long been educated in residential facilities, special day schools, or, prior to the full implementation of (PL 94-142), not educated at all. The implementation of PL 94-142 has, however, resulted in changes few could have imagined prior to its passage. In addition to the alteration of administrative elements, perceptions of educators, and more gradually the general public, have been changed to reflect a view of educating students with severe to profound mental handicaps and/or multiple disabilities as being within the realm of possibility for local school districts (Lilly, M., 1985). Although this perception is not all-pervasive, the presence of students with severe to profound mental handicaps and/or multiple disabilities in public schools throughout the country suggests a need for a reevaluation of instructional planning (Fredericks, H. 1985).

Local school districts are experiencing an increase in the enrollment of students with severe to profound mental handicaps and/or multiple disabilities (Stainback, S. & Stainback, W., 1985). Many of these districts are unprepared for the sudden inclusion of these students into their programs. Thus, programs are often hurriedly constructed with little collaboration between special and regular education (Biklen, D., & Foster, S., 1985). This problem is compounded in rural settings in which small numbers of low-incidence populations are often referred to as justification for limitations on hiring (DaPaepe, J. & Walega, S., 1990). Provision of services for students with the most severe handicaps is often left to the one special education teacher serving the district, the resource teacher for students with mild handicapping conditions (Bacon, E., 1988). Such an arrangement places tremendous stress on the teacher responsible for these students due to lack of training, lack of assistance for meeting the intensive programming needs of these students, logistical issues related to implementation of ecological approaches, and lack of appropriate facilities and equipment for students with physical and health impairments. Like the overburdened infrastructure of inner city schools, rural schools are faced with a similar predicament when expected to serve a few students with multiple disabilities or severe to profound mental handicaps in often isolated conditions (DaPaepe, J. & Walega, S., 1990).

One answer to this dilemma is to train special education teachers to serve all handicapped children in a truly multicategorical or noncategorical model (Dempsey, S., 1990). Some states have moved in this direction, others have not (Berres, M. & Knoblock, P., 1987). Despite the fact that generic certification relates only to learning disabilities, mild mental retardation, and mild behavior disorders in some states, many of the teachers holding this certificate find themselves serving students ranging from mild learning disabilities to the most profoundly handicapped student. Training programs in these states reveal little if any exposure to methods and procedures for serving low-incidence populations, to say nothing of the cursory treatment often found in introduction to special education courses. Resource teachers faced with modifying academic training for mildly handicapped students often do not have the answers for what to do with the more severely handicapped students. When they do seek answers and focus on logical approaches, they are often thwarted because of limited resources, logistical problems, and the sheer distance to needed environments for community based education.

The need for well trained teachers and well designed programs for educating students with severe to profound mental handicaps and multiple disabilities is one which is widespread across the country (Berres, M. & Knoblock, P., 1987). However, the need is most critical in rural settings. The placement of this population in home school districts is a relatively new phenomenon which places a unique set of demands on rural special education programs. Those demands which are most difficult to meet are focused on the nature of assessment, program development, personnel requirements, and the ability to maintain delivery of services which reflect current and best practices (Berres, M. & Knoblock, P., 1987). The purpose of this study was to investigate the provision of educational services in rural areas of a southwestern state to students with severe to profound mental handicaps and/or multiple disabilities. Information gathered focused on availability of certified personnel, assessment, placement, curriculum design, and educational approaches.

Method

The population identified for this study consisted of the directors of special education in rural special education cooperatives, individual rural school districts, and urban districts. A cover letter and enclosed survey were sent to all of these directors. Three hundred forty-six were mailed. The cover letter explained the purpose of the study and requested completion of an enclosed survey. The survey included questions designed to obtain the following information: (a) administrative arrangement; (b) student information; (c) teacher certification; (d) curricular approaches; (e) assessment approaches; and (f) team models. Construction of the survey instrument followed guidelines provided by Kerlinger (1979, pp. 151-153). Participants were asked to provide a check mark beside the appropriate response or responses to eleven questions or statements. In addition to this, they were to indicate if their school district was part of a special education co-operative or, if it was not, to indicate the population of the primary municipality in which the school district was located. The survey was short (two pages) and was designed to require a short time to complete.

Results

One hundred thirty-six survey questionnaires were returned. This represents a return rate of 39% of the total defined population for this study. Forty-nine percent (67) of the returns came from rural special education cooperatives.

SPH/MH Served by Age Group

Of the 393 preschool students age six and below reported by all districts responding, 34.6% were located in rural special education cooperatives. The percentages for primary, intermediate, junior high, and senior high were 48.1, 37.2, 40.4, and 34.9 respectively. Total numbers reported were 393 for preschool, 469 for primary, 382 for intermediate, 346 for junior high, and 482 fir senior high. These totals represent rural and urban special education departments.

Certification of SPH/MH teachers

Of the 67 rural cooperatives reporting, 4.3% indicated that individuals serving as teachers in classes for students with severe or profound mental handicaps or multiple disabilities possessed an SPH endorsement on their basic teacher certification. Only 26.4% indicated that teachers of these classes possessed an endorsement in the area of mental retardation. Figures from individual districts or urban areas were 6.6% and 25% respectively. Cooperatives reporting teachers of these classes holding generic special education certification represented 30% of those reporting. It should be noted that many teachers possess multiple certificates and endorsements. This results in total percentages which do not equal one hundred. Teachers possessing endorsement in learning disabilities were reported by 12.86% of the rural cooperatives and 9.9% of the other districts. Generic special education was the only certificate held by SPH teachers in 15.6% of the rural cooperatives. Endorsement in mental retardation was the only certificate reported by SPH teachers in 7.8% of the rural cooperatives. The total absence of SPH teachers having an SPH or MR endorsement was reported by 34.37% of the rural cooperatives and 35.087 of the other districts.

Delivery system

The majority of rural cooperatives place their students with severe to profound mental handicaps and/or multiple disabilities in self contained classrooms. At the elementary level, 32.5% utilize self contained classrooms for SPH or MH (multihandicapped) students. Self contained classrooms for individuals with mental handicaps were indicated by 31% of the cooperatives. The figures for secondary were 19.5% and 26% respectively. Table 1 provides a breakdown of the type of service delivery system provided for SPH and/or MH students in all of the reporting districts.

Program model utilized

Overwhelmingly, the rural cooperatives indicated that their SPH programs were developmentally based (85.7%). Ecologically based programs were reported by 28.6% of the rural cooperatives. Interesting to note was the report by 14% of the cooperatives that their programs were based upon the state's academic essential elements. Because these figures total more than 100%, it is evident that programs reflect combinations of these models.

Skills assessment and curriculum planning

Table 2 provides a comparison of those cooperatives reporting emphasis on assessment procedures which were behavioral, developmental, or ecological. The percentages of cooperatives in each category providing assessment for the skill areas listed are provided. Future environmental

Table 1

SERVICE DELIVERY SYSTEM PROVIDED FOR STUDENTS WITH SEVERE AND PROFOUND HANDICAPS OR MULTIPLE DISABILITIES

	ELEMENTARY	SECONDARY
RESOURCE ROOM	15.0%	13.0%
HALF DAY RESOURCE ROOM	3.3	4.9
MAINSTREAMED CLASSES	14.2	9.7
SELF CONTAINED (SPH or MH)	32.5	19.5
SELF CONTAINED (MR)	31.0	26.0
EARLY CHILDHOOD	.8	0
VOCATIONAL HANDICAPPED CLASSES		6.5
VOCATIONAL ADJUSTMENT CLASS		10.6
REGULAR VOCATIONAL CLASSES		7.3
WORKSHOP		1.6

Table 2

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ASSESSMENT PROCESS AND ENVIRONMENTAL ANALYSIS

SKILL AREA ASSESSED	BEHAVIORAL	DEVELOPMENTAL	ECOLOGICAL
SELF HELP SKILLS	100%	100%	100%
SOCIAL SKILLS	100	98	100
CURRENT ENVIRONMENTAL NEEDS	83	82	100
DOMESTIC NEEDS	76	73	92
LEISURE-RECREATIONAL NEEDS	80	75	96
FUTURE ENVIRONMENTAL NEEDS	65	59	88
VOCATIONAL SKILLS	87	80	100
FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS	85	75	84

needs were part of the assessment procedures of 65% of the behaviorally oriented, 59% of the developmentally oriented, and 88% of the ecologically oriented cooperatives. Domestic needs were assessed by 76% of the behaviorally oriented, 73% of the developmentally oriented, and 92% of the ecologically oriented cooperatives. Current environmental needs were evaluated by 100% of the environmentally oriented cooperatives compared to 83% and 82% of the behavioral and developmental cooperatives respectively.

Team Approach

Of the three types of assessment teams, only 1.6% of the special education cooperatives indicated that a transdisciplinary approach was used. Interdisciplinary teams were utilized in 9.8% of the cooperatives. Eighty-eight and one half percent of the cooperatives reported using multidisciplinary teams. In urban and individual districts, the percentages were 12.1% interdisciplinary, 5.2% transdisciplinary, and 82.7% multidisciplinary.

Discussion

Analysis of this data suggests that SPH/MH students are fairly evenly distributed across age groups. One would expect a larger percentage of SPH/MH students in more urban districts because of larger populations. However, the relatively large percentages for the rural cooperatives is indicative of the trend toward placing these students in their home districts. The fact that relatively large numbers of SPH/MH students are found in the rural cooperatives surveyed, and 34.37% of these cooperatives have no teachers with endorsements in SPH or mental retardation, suggests a tremendous need for increased efforts to provide training in teacher preparation programs.

The certification reported most often was generic special education (30%). It is interesting to note that 15.6% of the cooperatives employed SPH/MH teachers who only had generic special education certificates. Only 4.3% of the special education cooperatives reported employing teachers with SPH endorsements. Despite the fact that large numbers of SPH teachers have generic certificates, their training may lack components focusing on the education of SPH and MH students. Most generic programs emphasize mildly handicapped students. Teachers in rural cooperatives who lack training in the areas of SPH/MH may face situations in which resources are limited or nonexistent and support services are difficult to access.

The wide range of certificates noted (generic, MR, SPH, ED, LD, Speech-Language Pathology, Deaf Ed., Deficient Vision, Early Childhood, and Bilingual Education) suggest that teachers hired to teach SPH/MH students in rural areas may not be interested in continuing very long with SPH/MH students. The low percentage of districts indicating that teachers holding SPH or MR endorsements teach SPH/MH students suggests a training crisis. As more students with severe and profound handicaps stay home and attend schools in their home districts, the need for trained personnel will increase. Training programs should be developed which prepare individuals for serving SPH students in rural areas. Because of the low incidence of this population, one cooperative may not have enough students to hire an SPH teacher. It may be time to prepare rural special education specialists who are certified or endorsed in a wide variety of areas. Such training would be truly cross-categorical and would provide training in mild, moderate and severe to profound disabilities.

It appears that those cooperatives which utilize ecological assessment procedures tended to be more future oriented than those emphasizing behavioral or developmental approaches. Despite the fact that future environmental needs, recreational needs and domestic needs are considered vital to the education and training of students with severe to profound disabilities, many districts continue to exclude these areas from their programs. The tendency to focus less on ecological approaches may be reflective of the lack of training represented by SPH/MH teachers in the field.

The survey findings suggest a need for a close examination of programs designed to educate severely to profoundly handicapped and multiply disabled students, particularly in rural areas. Quality of services is limited by lack of qualified teachers, little use of ecological procedures, and a tendency to ignore functional and near future needs. If programs are to adequately serve these students, then training programs must address procedures for educating severely to profoundly handicapped and multiply disabled students. Teachers cannot be expected to learn what they need to know on the job. The complex nature of teaching severely to profoundly handicapped students warrants a training program which thoroughly addresses medical issues, physical disabilities, sensory impairments, transitional planning, and the combination of these factors with the issue of low cognitive functioning. Training in high incidence categorical programs will not prepare teachers to work with students who have a myriad of combinations of handicapping conditions. This is complicated by the placement of some of these students in rural areas where the special education teacher is expected to take on this responsibility. SPH/MH programs can no longer be based on a predictable progression to nowhere. Students with severe to profound disabilities should be afforded the opportunity to be a part of possibility searches. Although many teachers who lack training may be possibility searchers, the addition of a background in SPH/MH would enable them to turn the possibilities into realities.

The results of this survey suggest that rural special education training programs are needed. These programs should reflect the realities faced by special education directors who cannot find enough certified persons willing to work in rural settings, or who do not have enough students to warrant a full time teacher of the severely to profoundly handicapped or multiply disabled. If teacher training programs do not adequately address low-incidence areas, then parents will continue to have to send their children away or to accept second best. The time has come to recognize the shortage in rural areas and address the problem by establishing truly generic programs. If it is impossible to separate students into cadres of rural or urban teachers, then all teachers should be prepared to take on the responsibility of serving a wide variety of exceptional children. Many rural districts do not have the luxury of providing categorical placements for their exceptional students. Teachers trained to work with all students could help meet this need. If basic certification cannot be changed, then, special education teachers in rural areas should be required to acquire additional training.

The least restrictive environment ought to be that placement which places the least amount of space between a child and his or her parents. However, in attempting to place students in such an environment, school administrations often create more restrictive environments by hiring teachers who lack training and who do not utilize approaches which will aid in transition. Further research is definitely needed. We must ascertain the extent to which children with severe to profound handicaps and/or multiple disabilities are being subjected to educational programming which perpetuates their limitations and precludes their ability to take their place in society as a productive member.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Janice L. Ferguson
Co-Presenter: Thomas Nicholson
Frank Kersting
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

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EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION OF 'AIDS and You': A PAMPHLET FOR HIGH SCHOOL SPECIAL EDUCATION STUDENTS

EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION OF 'AIDS and You': A PAMPHLET FOR HIGH SCHOOL SPECIAL EDUCATION STUDENTS

ABSTRACT

Health education of the public is an increasing concern particularly in the area of sexually transmitted diseases (STDS). Currently, pamphlets are written at or above the seventh grade level of readability while not all segments of society read at that level. Criteria exist for making pamphlets more readable so that those reading at lower levels can understand the material. A healthy society needs informed citizens and pamphlets written for specific segments of society are a critical contribution to achieving that goal.

EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION OF 'AIDS and You': A PAMPHLET FOR HIGH SCHOOL SPECIAL EDUCATION STUDENTS

INTRODUCTION

Health education regarding sexually transmitted diseases (STDS) is the focus of public attention as society moves from debate to action. One such action is the attempt to educate all segments of society about STDS, particularly AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome). Professionals in sex education, sexual dysfunction, and sexually transmitted diseases, report that effective communication is a key element in both prevention and treatment programs (Merson, 1987). One effective medium for transmission of information is health pamphlets as they provide factual information that can be readily referred to unlike other mediums such as television.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to measure information gained by urban/rural secondary special education students after reading a specially designed pamphlet on AIDS. The authors hypothesized that health pamphlets, while designed to be as explicit as possible, were not written at a functional literacy level for unique populations such as secondary special education students. The authors' initial research of ten pamphlets revealed reading levels ranging from seventh to tenth grade with one exception of a high fifth grade level (Ferguson & Kersting, 1989). The functional reading level of the general American public is approximately fifth grade and lower for certain segments of the population (Resnick & Resnick, 1977). Pamphlets written at the seventh grade level may be appropriate for the educated segment of society. For those with restricted reading ability there are currently no pamphlets available. The adult population reading at a functional literacy level is an at-risk population in health. Consequently, they need information they can understand.

PAMPHLET DESIGN

The authors designed the pamphlet, 'AIDS and You' for use with high school special education students. The pamphlet, which has had two revisions to accommodate new information about AIDS, contains a vocabulary preview of words readers need to know, self-assessment questions, and has a readability level of 3.8 grade (Flesch scale).

'AIDS and You" clearly traces the progression of the disease, explaining not only what happens once the person becomes HIV positive but his ability to infect others. The facts are presented in a parental discussion format of "Let's talk about . . ." Prevention and early diagnosis are stressed, reflecting the prevailing public health position. Prevention methods clearly reflect the current national position that the only "safer sex" is no sex, emphasizing alternate ways of showing affection. The other primary route of transmission, injecting drugs, is explained with the admonition that drugs must always be avoided. The values are presented at the end of the pamphlet through a series of "situations" reflective of teenagers' dilemmas. These scenarios are intended to serve as a basis for class discussion or for use by parents for values clarification at home. The pamphlet was rated by a national panel as appropriate for high school and college students because of interest and format (CEC/AAHE, 1989).

PILOT STUDY

The authors tested the pamphlet against a commercially available pamphlet for AIDS with the special education students enrolled in grades 9 through 12 in a Kentucky high school. The pilot study results suggested the viability of using health pamphlets written to the reading level of the targeted audience, secondary special education students (Ferguson, Kersting, & Nicholson, 1990). The current study was expanded to a more cross-sectional population of urban/rural secondary special education students. The identified "urban" areas were two Lexington, Kentucky sites. The rural areas were three high schools in East and West Central Kentucky.

URBAN/RURAL STUDY

A study sample was comprised of 100 special education students at three rural Kentucky high schools and two urban Kentucky alternate treatment centers. The sample included 71 males and 29 females. Twenty-four of the students were black and 76 were white.

The sample represented a mix of demographic characteristics, urban/rural, handicapping condition, race and gender. The Solomon-Four Group research design was employed within each school and class. Two groups read the 'AIDS and You' pamphlet while two groups read an age/interest appropriate pamphlet on a different health concern, chewing tobacco.

An author-designed AIDS knowledge test consisting of 30 multiple choice items developed specifically to measure information presented in the 'AIDS and You' pamphlet was administered. Test-retest reliability is .69 (n=30) and internal consistency reliability (KR-20) is .89 (n=44). The results of the study are as follows.

1. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) revealed no difference in post-test scores between the treatment group (GR. 1) and the control group (Gr.3) ($F_{1,49}=.08$, dF = 49, $p < .7729$).

2. ANCOVA revealed a significant difference in posttest scores between girls in the treatment group (GR. 1) and girls in the control group (GR. 3) using the pretest as a covariate ($F_{1,12}$=6.98, dF = 12, $p < .0246$). The pretest mean score of the treatment group was 21.83, at posttest it was 16.17 ($T = -2.75$, $p < .0403$). This represents an 18.9% reduction in knowledge.

3. Analysis of variance revealed no difference between the posttest mean of the pretest/posttest treatment group and the posttest mean of the posttest only treatment group ($F = .21$; 3, 99; ns).

4. No difference was found between the posttest means of the typically impaired treatment students versus the typically impaired control students using the pretest as a covariate (ANCOVA), ($F_{1,22} =$ dF = 22, $p < .6137$. ANCOVA revealed no significant difference between the posttest mean of the severely impaired control students ($F_{1,26} =$ .09, dF = 26, $p < .7679$).

5. No difference was found between the posttest means of the educably mentally handicapped treatment students versus the educably mentally handicapped control students using the pretest as a covariate (ANCOVA), ($F_{1,22} =$,41, dF = 22, $p < .5312$). ANCOVA revealed no significant difference between the posttest means of the learning disabled treatment students versus the posttest mean of the learning disabled control students ($F_{1,3} = 1.5$, dF = 3, $p < .4360$).

The results of this experimental evaluation are mixed and unclear. The lack of an overall treatment effect coupled with an apparent loss of knowledge among females is disappointing. The authors have three hypotheses that may explain the results found.

1. Students' negative attitudes about task repetition (i.e., students completed the pretest at the start of the class session and completed the posttest at the end of the same class session).

2. Immediate post-pamphlet anxiety based on the nature of the subject matter.

3. Combination of 1 and 2.

Based on the reported findings the following conclusions were drawn.

1. For the treatment group as a whole, the pamphlet was not proven to increase knowledge of AIDS.

2. There was a significant reduction in knowledge among girls only; no change in knowledge was found among boys.

3. No testing effect occurred.

4. No differential effects were found by severity of special education classification.

5. No differential effects were found between the educably mentally handicapped and the learning disabled impaired students.

RESULTS/CONCLUSIONS

Due to the mixed and unclear findings of the urban/rural study, the authors have defined a new study to determine (1) why there was a negative reaction among girls to the AIDS brochure and (2) why there was no overall effect.

The recently-funded new study utilizes the 45 educably mentally handicapped/learning disabled students enrolled in Resource English in a local Kentucky high school and the 60 students identified as learning disabled/emotionally disturbed at a residential psychiatric facility in a small Kentucky community. Neither of these sites participated in the earlier urban/rural Kentucky study.

The authors hypothesize that the results happened either (1) because the students were irritated they had to take the same test twice in one period, consequently, they did not take the posttest seriously and (2) anxiety created by the nature of the topic of AIDS decreased performance. The study was redesigned to test these two hypotheses.

A pretest/posttest alternative treatment group will be utilized. Using random selection, one half of the classes will receive both the pamphlet and a 40 minute tutorial on AIDS. One half of the classes will receive only the pamphlet but be given 20 minutes to read it. The entire study will be conducted over the course of three weeks. Week one will consist of the AIDS pretest. Week two will consist of the pamphlet/tutorial for Group 1 and the pamphlet for Group 2. Week three will consist of the posttest. Altogether, only three class periods will be utilized. The classrooms will be randomly assigned to the two treatment conditions.

Results of the new study will be presented at a later conference.

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ACRES PRESENTATION

Presenter: Jacalyn Searl
Co-Presenter: David Rand
Judy Struck
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

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DEVELOPING A TRAINING PROGRAM FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD INSERVICE PERSONNEL PREPARATION: A RURAL APPROACH

INTRODUCTION

With the passage of Public Law 99-457 (Education of the Handicapped Act Amendments of 1986), states and local agencies have been faced with the challenge of providing adequate intervention services for special needs children birth through five and their families. Currently, in South Dakota, there is a shortage of trained personnel in family services for the handicapped to implement these services, and personnel currently serving these children usually have not been specifically prepared to work with this age group. Additionally, the rural nature of South Dakota provides little opportunity to work in an integrated early intervention capacity with professionals from other disciplines, particularly specialists located in urban areas. Finally, there are limited training opportunities for rural professionals because of their extreme distance from colleges and/or universities that offer such educational training.

This paper will provide an overview of South Dakota University's Affiliated Program/Center for Developmental Disabilities (SD UAP/CDD) effort to provide a comprehensive outreach training approach.

This federal and state funded training project, currently operating in its first year of implementation, is designed to provide a maximum of 15 hours of undergraduate/graduate coursework in early childhood special education using a preservice/inservice system in order to meet the specific needs of personnel in rural and reservation areas.

BACKGROUND OF PROJECT

In 1986, Congress enacted a national program to expand and improve early intervention services through the Education of the Handicapped Act Amendments (P.L.99-457). The handicapped infants and toddlers program created by this legislation is designed to help states provide family-centered support to infants and toddlers through individually designed early intervention services. While early intervention services has been a part of federal efforts to assist individuals in need for many years, the new handicapped infants and toddlers program challenges the nation to improve, expand, and coordinate those services so that the policy goal of statewide, comprehensive, coordinated programs of early services for all infants and toddlers with handicaps and their families can be achieved (Report to Congress,1988).

The development and implementation of a policy and plan for personnel preparation standards is one of the fourteen required components for states participating in P.L.99-457, Part H. Part H provides a lengthy and detailed description of the requisite policy components that relate to "the establishment and maintenance of standards to ensure that personnel necessary to carry out [early intervention services] are appropriately and adequately prepared and trained" (Holmes,1990). Many times, however, preparation of existing personnel has not included training in the application of their own specialty to young children with special needs, nor does it give them the multidisciplinary expertise necessary to meet the broad range of needs of these children and their families (Zeitlin,1982). This early intervention project will help assist the lead agency, the South Dakota Office of Special Education, to meet and to comply with the demands of this legislation.

NEED FOR PROJECT

Children and the families that support them are the future of our nation. We must assure that the youngest and most vulnerable of our children, those with special needs, have the fullest opportunity to develop the capacity to participate in all aspects of American society. P.L. 99-457 focuses national attention on the needs of families with infants and toddlers who experience or are at risk of having handicaps.

This legislation provides impetus and assistance to coordinate federal, state and local efforts on behalf of these young children and their families (Report to Congress,1988). Thus, the Federal Government has seen the need to provide specific and quality training to the early interventionists in the field and to give them the necessary support to maintain these skills to meet the demands required of them.

Shortage of personnel/skills:
There is a tremendous need in South Dakota to provide community-based training at both the preservice/inservice levels in early intervention (Forest,1989). The rural nature of South Dakota creates a situation where many special education teachers find themselves to be the only "expert" within a school system. A survey conducted in 1989 with the State Department of Education found that the majority of these teachers have only an undergraduate degree and of those who have a masters degree, few have specific training in early childhood special education.

As indicated by research, some staff turnover rate among the professionals working in a rural service delivery program is often very high due to the extensive amount of travel, numerous responsibilities and the lack of close interpersonal relationships between staff members.

Delivery system:
There is no current outreach delivery system in South Dakota which specifically addresses the needs of early intervention providers identified in P.L. 99-457. Service gaps exist when some, but not all, needed early intervention services are available. For example, in the Schafft, et al. (1987) study, state agency staff, local community service providers, and parents reported service gaps in the areas of pediatric speech and audiology, pediatric physical therapy, and respite care. Delivery system gaps also exist when services are available only through agencies with limited capacity to meet all early intervention service needs.

Another delivery system gap resulted when early intervention services were available only in a single setting, such as a hospital.

This instructional design will provide a distance learning delivery system that is flexible enough to accommodate staff changes and needs while maintaining a quality level of skill development and content maintenance for professionals in the field.

Rural nature of system:
In South Dakota,68% of the public school early childhood special education programs and services are run by single districts. Well over half (57%) are situated in rural areas with populations of less than 2,500 people. Nearly 12.3% are located in small towns with populations from 2500 up to 10,000 people. Only 14% reside in communities of 10,000 - 50,000 and 17% reside in cities with over 50,000 people (Forest,1989). In many cases, families requiring home based services have been unable to obtain needed assistance in early intervention services due to their geographic isolation. Additional factors include the previously described statewide lack of trained personnel as well as difficulty in obtaining transportation to distant service providers.

The geographical isolation of individuals, limited local resources, meager health care facilities, and difficulty accessing sufficient training arrangements are key issues that will be addressed, evaluated, and monitored continuously throughout this entire project. This outreach project is designed to provide training to community personnel in key direct service areas so that they may provide pertinent care for the children and their families. This project is unique because it is developed for personnel who are geographically isolated in rural They have often grown up, are employed, and are raising or have raised families in these rural areas, and have a strong desire to remain in the area. Educating these individuals as close to their homes and communities as possible fills professional needs while meeting the overall goal of this project: to improve educational services of special needs children and their families/communities and while improving educational standards of personnel in rural areas.

DEVELOPMENT OF PROJECT

P.L.99-457 has created extreme pressure in South Dakota to respond to the legislative mandate that personnel working in early intervention be appropriately and adequately prepared and trained (Federal Register,1989). This project is one of South Dakota's response to this sense of urgency. Training efforts must address not only complex skills and behaviors associated with new roles, but also the challenge to fundamental beliefs about the intervention process. In addition, the law has mandated that training be conducted on an interdisciplinary basis, which means that coordination and consistency across disciplines is essential. Efforts are further complicated by state and local translations of how the law will be implemented (Winton,1990).

In South Dakota, this need was addressed through a RFP from the Administration on Developmental Disabilities and the proposal was written by the SD UAP/CDD to assist the lead agency in fulfilling the diverse training needs throughout the state. In August of 1989 a survey entitled "Early Childhood Special Education Programs and Services in South Dakota" was completed and the survey's executive summary report was instrumental in conveying current statistics on the need for inservice training to the attention of the Office of Special Education. The survey was distributed to 138 educator's and 109 administrator's directly involved in public school early childhood special education programs and services in South Dakota.

The results were startling (Forest,1989).

1) 57% of the programs and services are situated in rural areas with populations of less than 2,500 people
2) 35% reported an increase during the past two years in the number of special needs children birth through two years of age
3) 67% of the educator respondents reported that they were isolated in their program
4) 43% of the educators have majored in a combination of elementary and special education while only 1% of the

educators majored in early childhood special education
5) 69% of the administrators of public school early childhood special education programs have no coursework in early childhood special education
6) 62% of the educators have had little or no inservice training in the last several years in the area of early childhood special education and
7) 96% of the educators want further educational experiences related to working with children with special needs.

Results clearly indicated the extreme need for inservice training among early childhood special education educators and administrators within the state to enable them to better plan for and work with special needs children and their families.

This outreach training project will provide a statewide and community-based, coordinated personnel development program in early intervention. Preservice/inservice training opportunities will be provided for educators in rural areas.This approach will be twofold: first, to create a training system through various distance learning techniques and innovative technological methods; and second, to produce comprehensive and culturally sensitive materials that could be integrated into future training activities with possible distribution throughout the nation. General knowledge and skills will be acquired in working with infants, toddlers and preschoolers with special needs and their families while cultural concerns relevant to working with Native American children and their families will be included.

KEY FEATURES

Key features of the project, based upon an analysis of needs, include:

1) A Regional Approach - the project has adopted a regional approach to management by networking with seven locations
2) A Distance Learning Approach - this project will meet the needs of the rural and reservation areas by taking the coursework and activities directly to them through a variety of delivery methods
3) Short-term Needs - a component of the training project is to train personnel in existing programs
4) Long-term Needs - strategies are being designed to incorporate coursework into the educational curriculum so that students who begin their training in the near future will graduate with the skills necessary to serve children with special needs according to what is best for the family
5) Cooperative Approach - the training model implements coordinated linkages between urban and rural professionals in order to best meet the needs of the family and the individual child
6) Focus on the Family - the involvement of parents in all areas of the project reflects the family focus called for

in Public Law 99-457 and acknowledges the long-term benefits of early intervention services for both the child's development and the overall strength of the family

7) Cultural Sensitivity - the curriculum of the project will be culturally sensitive to the Native American and

8) Replicability - the training model could be easily replicated by others using the procedures and staff development outlined in the proposal.

DESCRIPTION OF PROJECT

The key staff for this outreach training project will be placed in the School of Education and the SD UAP/CDD to demonstrate and enhance the interdisciplinary philosophy of this training and to provide academic credit for all training offered.

During the first year of this three year project,the preservice training coordinator has developed and implemented an experimental course in early intervention special education at the undergraduate level. She will continue to work with existing faculty at the School of Education and the SD UAP/CDD to develop and teach the needed coursework which would enable participants from this project to acquire an endorsement in early childhood special education.

The outreach training coordinator is housed at the SD UAP/CDD and is responsible for the development and dissemination of inservice training appropriate for those educators who are already working in early intervention programs. At least nine hours of undergraduate/ graduate level coursework will be developed and delivered in cooperation with the University of South Dakota State Wide Educational Services, through statewide video and audio networks, on-site course instruction, and learning packages developed for distance learning. Participants will be able to make direct contact as needed through a toll-free telephone number and in-person visits by the coordinator to each of the seven regional training sites will occur during each of the courses. In year two, the telecourse network will be utilized to connect this coursework to rural community colleges/universities which will enable those professionals from those areas to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills.

During the third year of this project, the preservice training coordinator, the outreach training coordinator, and the project director will work with the School of Education, the School of Medicine, the SD UAP/CDD, the State Wide Education Services as well as the State Department of Education, Office of Special Education to develop and implement a three-day early childhood institute.

Further efforts will continue with the University of South Dakota State Wide Education Services to offer distance learning coursework on a regular basis to rural areas. Successful completion of this outreach initiative will help provide the personnel needed for effective early intervention programs throughout the state. It will further enable numerous disciplines to work cooperatively and 2competently to develop and to implement a model training program using telecommunication and distance learning that may be replicable to other rural areas. The outreach procedure is initially being offered to participants from broadly defined early intervention service areas. This audience generally includes representatives from a variety of disciplines as well as from various state and local agencies.

A later alternative approach to acquire the necessary audience for this training will be to carefully plan who should be included rather than leaving this to chance. Thus, the future strategy for selecting the necessary participants is to target specific "organizational families" (Havelock,Havelock,1973) (eg, administrators, direct service providers, families) or those individuals who have direct impact on one another back in their work place. Evidence suggests that it is difficult for individuals to develop new roles and behaviors unless organizations are trained together. By participating together in training, it is more likely that the individuals within organizations will develop a shared knowledge and value base (Draper,Lang,1985 and Georgiades, Phillimore,1975).

The emphasis of P.L.99-457 on interagency, multidisciplinary, and professional-family collaboration means that a variety of individuals will be working together who may not share the same knowledge and value base. They may have different ideas about their own and other's roles in early intervention. Definitions of concepts such as "family focus" may vary considerably across disciplines and across or within teams. Thus, the importance of targeting is particularly relevant to the success of this project. A final significant component is the development of networks and linkages by collaborating with other colleges/universities concerned with the quality of available early intervention personnel preparation programs.

Through this collaboration two specific goals will be reached: (a) to prepare competent early intervention personnel from various disciplines who will fulfill leadership roles in developing, delivering, and evaluating needed services for young children with handicaps and their families, and (b) to prepare personnel will be able to respond to the needs of young children with handicaps and their families in relation to the unique geographic characteristics of rural South Dakota.

PROGRESS TO DATE

1) Outreach rationale - distance learning techniques and technological methods can be highlighted with both visual effects and narrations and outreach workshops provide hands on and practical experiences necessary to meet the core competencies. Another consideration underlying this system of training is that high-quality programs can engage the interest of caregivers and present positive role models to them.

2) Review of options - finding out precisely what kind of media equipment/systems are currently available throughout the state and the possibility of using this equipment/system for the outreach training project.

3) Diverse training options - options will include a 1-week training institute for course credit, a series of weekend training workshops,specialized seminars and conferences, audio-visual distance learning technologies and opportunities for individualized study and research.

4) Linkages - a continuing step of this project will involve the linking and coordinating of instructional and field-based experiences for early interventionists with state and community agencies, service providers, parent organizations, and the state's interagency coordinating council. Such collaboration is intended to ensure that training competencies reflect the needs of service providers and consumers in the state. These links will also facilitate the development of field-based experiences within appropriate settings and promote future employment opportunities.

EVALUATION OF PROJECT

The evaluation of this outreach training project is composed of three phases: project input, project process, and project outcome. Both formative and summative data will be collected to provide information necessary to make evaluate judgements of project effectiveness. During the first two years of this project implementations, input evaluations will examine the congruences of project goals with the theoretical intent of the project. Process evaluation will monitor accomplishments of project objectives as they relate to project goals. Results of the process evaluations will form the basis for ongoing project modifications and improvements. In the third year of operation, emphasis will be shifted to outcome evaluations. These outcome evaluations will assess whether or not early interventionists have meet the designated competencies and terminal goals, the impact of the outreach training on university and service systems, and the cost-effectiveness of the project.

DESIRED PROJECT OUTCOMES

A project of this nature would require the establishment of liaisons with a large number of state and local agencies. To this end the SD UAP/CDD's network of national chapters and state and local agencies will allow for maximum cooperation and coordination between disciplines, permitting a careful matching of national resources to guarantee state and local needs. This relationship would also guarantee a high degree of visibility and commitment required by such a comprehensive effort. In addition, close working relationships would be maintained with other state, local, and national associations. These would include representatives from many disciplines providing a broad range of related services; parent and professional advocacy organizations; and special education groups.

From the outset the project involved has individuals from a variety of different disciplines. Moreover, this project has created numerous opportunities to form additional liaisons between agencies and educators. A benefit to these state and local agencies for their involvement would be to enhance their abilities to develop and implement state-of-the-art programs and services for this population.

The benefits to the child and his family from such a comprehensive training approach would be seen in appropriate and consistent services being provided and delivered to the child and his family to meet their individual needs through early interventionists who have specific skills and competencies in the field of early intervention special education.

Through the seven regional sites an estimated 70 to 100 early interventionist will receive training in these specific skills and competencies enabling the professionals to receive an endorsement in early childhood special education.

The development, implementation, and evaluation of this training project will clearly reflect the most comprehensive and collaborative networking between numerous disciplines who play a vital role in effectively serving handicapped children and their families.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Kevin A. Koury
Co-Presenter: Cheryl L. Wienke
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

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A COLLABORATIVE APPROACH TO ON-THE-JOB PRACTICUM SUPERVISION OF RURAL TEACHERS

INTRODUCTION

A chronic shortage of trained and certified special education teachers has plagued West Virginia, especially in the most rural counties. The West Virginia Department of Education (WVDOE, 1985) has reported that many special education teaching positions are occupied by teachers working on out-of-field permits. This shortage is exacerbated by difficulty in recruiting and retaining special educators. Isolation, lack of a support system, and burnout have been suggested as causes for high turnover rates in special education (Holland,1982; Weiskoph, 1980; Ysseldyke & Algozzine, 1982; Zabel & Zabel, 1980). The lack of certified personnel combined with a high rate of teacher turnover has created a need to train additional teachers to fill existing and new positions in special education. The highest priority of training must go to teachers currently employed in special education positions on temporary, out-of-field permits, since they are more likely to maintain employment (Marrs, 1983; Wilson, 1981).

Institutions of higher education face the challenge of developing innovative service delivery systems for the preparation of teaching personnel that are adaptable to the needs of today's adult learners (Hull & De Santos, 1979). Family and financial priorities have forced many students (especially those at the graduate level) to pursue studies on a part-time basis, and leaving employment and/or relocating to pursue teaching certification is often not possible (Culbertson, 1974). The unavailability of practicum experiences discourages some students from entering training programs and prevents others from completing all requirements. In addition, on-the-job practicum experiences may enhance program quality. The practicing teacher is faced with real problems that cannot be duplicated in simulated settings such as summer programs or laboratory schools (Grant et al, 1979). Collaborative training projects that involve school systems directly in the training of teaching personnel have been advocated as a method of providing practitioner input into preservice programs (Griffin, 1986; Pugach & Allen-Meares, 1985; Yarger & Mertens, 1980). On-the-job practicum experiences thus take advantage of opportunities for more realistic and functional training experiences and performance appraisal inherent in the classroom setting, as well as improve the accessibility of training programs to individuals in rural areas.

The Department of Special Education at West Virginia University offers an on-the-job practicum experience for teachers pursuing teaching certification/master's degrees in the areas of Mental Retardation, Learning Disabilities, Behavior Disorders, and Gifted Education. The practicum is available to eligible teachers in their own rural classrooms while they are employed on temporary permits granted by the Board of Education of the State of West Virginia. The Collaborative Practicum Model was developed between 1987 and 1990 with funds provided by a federal personnel preparation grant award. Since supervisors from the university cannot physically reach the practicum student in their remote rural settings on a consistent and frequent schedule, well-trained field-based supervisors are an integral component of this project, which fosters collaboration between the university and local school system. A series of training sessions enables qualified supervisory personnel to be available in the rural remote areas to provide guidance and assistance to the practicum student.

Institutions of higher education have traditionally failed to commit necessary resources to practicum supervision (ATE, 1986). Supervisory duties are given low priority status by faculty members, with the result that inadequate time and effort is devoted to working with practicum students (McIntire, 1983). Studies have shown that the cooperating teacher is the key to effective practicum supervision (Zeichner, 1980; Zimpher et al, 1980). Practicing master teachers have years of training and experience to use in supervising practicum experiences (Blumberg, 1980). They also have knowledge of a particular school system, including administrative policies, available resources, and contact persons. But, in order to be effective practicum supervisors they need direct instruction in skills for observing lessons, providing feedback, and evaluating teaching performance is needed (Emans, 1983). Data collected from previous practicum models used at West Virginia University indicated the need for the further training for field-based supervisory personnel. The Department of Special Education has developed a training program that systematically presents instruction in supervisory skills instruction with practice and feedback over a period of time in observing, giving feedback, providing formative evaluations, and writing summative evaluations.

THE PRACTICUM PROGRAM OPERATION

The practicum student must demonstrate adequate performance during the practicum on fifty (50) competencies in the skill areas of preteaching, teaching, and post teaching. The practicum experience is organized around Competency Based Teacher Education (CTBE), where competencies are specified in behavioral terms and alternative assessment activities are scheduled (Houston & Howram, 1972). Competency based teacher training programs allow students to individualize their practicum according to their own needs (Blackhurst, 1977) and then zero in on skills on which the practicum student needs practice using alternative demonstration activities to show improvement (Berdine, Cegelka, & Kelley, 1977). Following the orientation session the student completes a Q-sort exercise forcing the selection of five competencies in areas which the student wishes to improve teaching performance. In collaboration with the university supervisor and the cooperating, teacher an Individual Practicum Plan (IPP) is developed, specifying how the student will demonstrate the chosen competencies. The university supervisor schedules at least four obvservation sessions during the semester of the practicum. The cooperating teacher schedules at least ten (10) observations during the semester to observe the practicum student in their classroom. During an observation session the cooperating teacher/university supervisor observes and evaluates teaching. Documentation of progress made on the 50 competencies as well as the five specific competencies included in the IPP is done at that time.

Criteria that must be met for a student to be eligible for on-the-job practicum participation are: (1) enrollment in a program in special education at West Virginia University in Learning Disabilities, Behavior Disorders, Mental Retardation, or Gifted Education; (2) possession of a valid West Virginia teaching permit in the area of special education in which practicum is to be completed; (3) teaching experience of at least two academic years in the area of special education in which the practicum is to be completed; (4) permission from the superintendent of schools and the building principal for the practicum to be conducted in the school setting; (5) employment in a classroom setting which meets the state program standards for the area of specialization with appropriately placed pupils; (6) provision by the school district of a master teacher certified in the area of specialization to act as a cooperating teacher; and (7) sucessful completion of all required coursework for state certification recommendation by West Virginia University.

COLLABORATION IN PRACTICUM

Four phases of the West Virginia University Collaborative Practicum Project incorporate collaboration between the university and local school systems: the application process; the orientation session of participants; the training session(s) for cooperating teachers and university supervisors; and the debriefing meeting for supervisory personnel at the end of the academic year.

The application process is the initial determination of the practicum team and is dependent upon collaboration between the local school board and central office administrators, the practicum student, the cooperating teacher, and the university staff. The orientation session is the first exercise in collaborative group dynamics involving the practicum students, the cooperating teachers, and the university supervisors. The cooperating teacher training session is a collaborative encounter which helps the cooperating teachers develop supervisory skills. The debriefing meeting serves as an opportunity for cooperating teacher and university supervisors to jointly discuss successes/failures and make recommendations for improving practicum procedures.

The Application Procedure

Students who wish to participate in practicum during an upcoming semester must contact the Practicum Coordinator in order to secure an application for practicum. At this time, a preliminary screening is performed by the coordinator's staff to determine potential eligibility of the student to participate in the practicum experience. Only if eligibility has been determined the student is mailed a practicum application.

The application asks the student to perform a self-appraisal (with documentation) of their status with regard to the completion of all necessary coursework, their experience in the area of specialization, the number of students served, the daily contact hours with these students, and whether or not they are teaching on a temporary teaching permit. This document also requires the student to collaborate with the superintendent, principal, and colleagues to obtain the necessary permission in writing allowing the student to participate in the on-the-job practicum experience as well as verifying who will act as the cooperating teacher for the practicum. The superintendent also agrees to permit the cooperating teacher to have release time to make observation visits to the practicum student's classroom at least one hour per week for the 15 weeks of the on-the-job practicum. The principal of the school gives permission for the student to be observed in the classroom by the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor.

The cooperating teacher must fulfill the following criteria: (1) Possession of a valid West Virginia teaching certificate in the are of special education specialization in which the practicum is to be conducted; (2) teaching experience of at least three academic years in the area of special education specialization in which the practicum is to be conducted; (3) completion of a Master's Degree in Special Education in the area of specialization in which the practicum is to be conducted; and (4) participation in a training workshop for acquisition of skills in using clinical supervision and competency assessment procedures. The individual chosen as the cooperating teacher agrees to serve in that capacity by signing the application and furnishing a copy of their teaching certificate.

The student's signature on this document affirms their intention to attend the practicum orientation session scheduled for the semester in which they intend to complete the practicum requirements, and to comply with all university requirements for practicum.

The Orientation Session

When the application for practicum has been completed and returned to the Practicum Coordinator, a thorough examination of the applicant's coursework, grades, and other eligiblilty factors is performed to determine final eligibility to participate in the practicum experience. Once this has been completed, both practicum student and cooperating teacher are assigned an orientation session at a nearby location.

Individuals who are required to attend the orientation session are the practicum student, the cooperating teachers, and the university supervisors assigned to supervise in the geographic location surrounding the orientation site. During this session, practicum staff complete the necessary paperwork to register each student for the practicum, distribute practicum handbooks and cooperating teacher packets, explain the requirements for all participants, and discuss concerns or questions arising during the session.

The orientation session sites are strategically located so as to be within a convient radius of driving distance for all practicum students from a particular geographic area of the state. The main focus of the session is to explain the responsibilities of all participants: the procedure for creating the IPP, the verification/demonstration of the 50 competencies, the format for instructional planning, and the various products to be evaluated. Encouragement of questions and discussion allows for all parties to become comfortable with role expectations and clarifies the requirements that must be met by the student.

The Cooperating Teacher Training Sessions

Practicum supervision provided by both the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor is provided by following techniques of the clinical supervision model (Acheson & Gall, 1980; Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, !969), which focuses on observation and evaluation of teaching to foster professional learning and growth (Garman, 1986). Project staff designed and utilized materials and procedures to train the field-based supervisors acting as cooperating teachers in the skills of observing, supervising, and evaluating teaching competencies.

Materials include videotapes of classroom teaching sessions to observe and critique, roleplay activities to practice supervisory feedback and consultation skills, and simulation activities to discuss problems encountered in supervision and evaluation of teaching. All materials are based on actual teaching situations found in special education programs in West Virginia schools, and on problems typically encountered by practicum supervisors in on-the-job settings. Training procedures use the collaborative consultation model to develop skills of observation, supervision, and evaluation (Idol, Paolucci & Nevin, 1986). Cooperating teachers develop skills of (1) active listening, (2) problem solving, (3) feedback, and (4) consultation (Conoley & Conoley, 1982; Heron & Harris, 1982; Warger & Aldinger, 1986).

The collaborative training sessions include lecture/discussion activities, guided practice, and probe assessments. All training is performed at regional sites within reasonable traveling distance for a group of cooperating teachers. The training session concentrating on observation skills provides participants the opportunity to practice the skill individually and then to collaborate using discussion and critique. Training concentrating on supervisory skills incorporates discussion of clinical supervision practices, practice using roleplay situations, and discussion and critique. Training to increase evaluation skills involves practice in documenting and summarizing teaching competencies, simulation exercises to elicit desired formative evaluative outcomes, and discussion and critique.

The Debriefing Session

Cooperating teacher, university supervisors and practicum staff are invited to attend an annual debriefijng session at the end of the school year . Particapants discuss problems as well as proprosed modifications. This session produces useful information for the practicum coordinator to continue to modify and improve the practicum experience

SUMMARY

The Department of Special Education at West Virginia University has developed a collaborative component to its on-the-job practicum model. The collaborative aspects involve: (1) practicum student interaction with school administrators and their colleagues during the application procedure; (2) collaborative group dynamics among practicum students, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors at the orientation session; (3) collaboration of supervisory personnel during cooperating teacher training sessions; and (4) collaboration regarding program evaluation and development between cooperating teachers, university supervisors, and project staff during the debriefing meeting. The rural nature of the entire service area for West Virginia University necessitates the most efficient and cost effective use of resouces available. The continued evolution of the on-the-job practicum model based on the data available indicates that quality supervision is possible when field-based master teachers are trained to perform that role, and that structures for enhancing collaboration between the university and the local school systems is an effective tool for improving the quality and accessibility of teacher training programs in rural areas..

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Gia Deasy
Co-Presenter: Wendy Heitzenroder
Day: March 19,1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

Gia Deasy
Wendy Heitzenroder
Wilfred Wienke
West Virginia University

Lisa Bloom
Western Carolina University

A COMPARISON OF METHODS FOR PROVIDING EVALUATIVE FEEDBACK TO PRACTICUM STUDENTS ON SEGMENTS OF TEACHING DURING SPECIAL EDUCATION PRACTICUM IN RURAL AREAS

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the status and quality of teaching has been scrutinized from many perspectives. Since A Nation at Risk (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) emphasized the need for educational reform, at least half a dozen subsequent reports, including A Nation Prepared (Carnegie Task Force, 1986) and Tomorrow's Teachers (The Holmes Group, 1986) have called the dramatic changes in America's classrooms and teacher training programs. While these reports address educational problems in general, the concerns expressed arerelevant to special education.

In the past, teacher education has often been based on an embarrassing assumption: that verbalized knowledge was a condition for effective teaching (Schwartz and Oseroff, 1975). However, the movement to competency based teacher education (CBTE) has led educators away from dependence on paper-and-pencil testing of knowledge. Currently, CBTE provides a way to specify and define teacher competencies in teacher education programs as well as to study the relationship of the competencies to student achievement. (Gagne, 1970).

Research indicates that more extensive preservice practicum experiences are associated with a greater number of superior teachers (Fredericks, Anderson, and Baldwin, 1977). Thus the importance of evaluative feedback during a competency based practicum experience is noted. This critical period of teacher training epitomizes the competency based teacher education movement and maximizes applied learning potential in teacher trainees.

Criticism and controversy surround the role of classroom observation in the supervision of special education practicum teachers. Both supervisors, as well as practicum students, note limitations of the observation-and-conference ritual. The potential for subjectivity and distortion by both parties can create a breakdown of trust which results in defensiveness. Thus, this critical period of teacher training has lost much of its full potential. Practicum students also have different perceptions of needed competencies. When surveyed, teachers of learning disabled and mentally retarded students shared similar views of the skills and competencies that they needed, while teachers of students with behavior disorders differed in their ratings of the necessary skills and competencies (Carri, 1985). Thus, the following research was an attempt to ascertain a suitable evaluative feedback tool which would give BD teachers personal insights concerning their teaching performance.

A growing number of researchers use state-of-the-art portable and laptop computers to collect, store, and analyze observational data (Reith, Polsgrove, Okolo, Bahr, & Eckert, 1987). The use of portable microcomputers has also been used to collect teacher behavior data (Reith, Haus, Bahr, 1989). This technology which allows the teacher and practicum supervisor to handle information more efficiently, adequately, and objectively was incorporated into this research.

Due to a shortage of certified special education teachers, West Virginia fills a high percentage of positions in behavior disorders with teachers holding only out-of-field teaching permits. The number of teaching permits issued in West Virginia for the 1988-1989 school year totaled 302 in the area of Behavior Disorders. This represents approximately 80% of all such teachers in the state, a percentage which has remained stable while the actual number of teachers has increased. A training program which directly impacted the training of teachers of students with behavior disorders in West Virginia by improving practicum experiences and provided the framework for this paper.

PARTICIPANTS

Project participants were recruited and qualified if they were uncertified "permit" teachers serving students with behavior disorders. Evening classes were provided by West Virginia University Special Education Department at participants local rural sites which allowed them to meet certification requirements. On-the-job practicum experiences were conducted in the actual classroom where participants were employed. This research was conducted during this alternative certification program and took place during the second semester of coursework when participates were engaged in practicum. Twenty-two practicum teachers located in 18 rural West Virginia schools participated in this research to ascertain teacher perception of effectiveness of evaluative feedback approaches.

EVALUATIVE FEEDBACK INSTRUMENTS

A) VIDEOTAPED TEACHING SEGMENTS WITH CODING ON TEACHING BEHAVIORS DERIVED FROM HAND HELD MICROCOMPUTERS

Microteaching developed by Dwight Allen (1969) attempts to take a "picture" of teaching by lusing a videotaped record of performance. This videotaped record is recognized as a powerful way to provide teachers with feedback (Rogers, 1987). A more significant approach to instructional improvement has been noted when this videotaping is combined with objective ratios of the actual teaching behaviors (Hoover, 1984). Specifically, in this research, the videotape and microcomputer equipment are used simultaneously to record data about the teaching performance.

A teacher behavior code was created from two approaches that can be used to teach academic skills to behaviorally disordered students: direct instruction, and it's off shoot, opportunity to respond. Direct instruction grew out of the work of two groups of researchers, one working on compensatory education (Becker, Engelmann, Carnine & Rhine, 1982), and the other on teacher effectiveness (Rosenshine, 1976). Although neither of these efforts directly focused specifically on the academic needs of behaviorally disordered students, both approaches are well suited for use with these students, many of whom require compensatory education and effective teaching to improve their academic functioning to grade level (Strain, Cooke, & Appoloni, 1976).

Duration counts were taken regarding the following teacher behaviors: transition, introduction, direct instruction, guided practice, independent work, evaluation. Frequency counts were taken regarding positive and negative feedback given by the teacher to the students. A brief definition for each of these teaching behaviors is given in TABLE I. The skills and knowledge required to use these two tools in combination require only a few hours of training in a group setting workshop session. Participants then viewed samples of their teaching performance and coded their video tapes using the hand-held microcomputers' coding system. Print-outs were then available allowing participants to actually compute ratios of time spent on each of the above mentioned teaching behaviors, as well as frequency counts noting the number of positive and negative responses made to students in their class setting.

TABLE I
BEHAVIOR CODING DEFINITIONS

Transition - Students are between lessons or activities and are not engaged in any type of activity or instruction. Time spent taking role, getting in line, etc. are all counted as transition.

Introduction - Time spent by the teacher introducing a lesson, providing an advance organizer, stating the objectives/purpose of the lesson or the activities to come.

Direct Instruction - Time spent in teaching a new skill or reviewing a skill. The teacher demonstrates, models, explains concepts, students ask questions, listen, respond to teacher questions.

Guided Practice - The teachers assist students in practicing the skill. The students are engaged in doing problem/activity with the teacher. May include group practice (choral and random student responding to teacher questions), students completing individual tasks (e.g., problems on the board) while the teacher monitors and provides assistance.

Independent Work - Students are engaged in independent drill and practice work activities, such as work sheets, work from the board, etc.

Evaluation - Student and teacher engaged in activity geared to evaluate the outcome of a lesson or to measure student progress toward a goal (e.g., curriculum based assessment, classroom quizzes or tests).

Positive Feedback - Each time the teacher responds to an appropriate behavior or response with a positive comment or praise.

Negative Feedback - Each time a teacher calls attention to an inappropriate behavior or response by making a negative comment.

B) WRITTEN OBSERVATION EVALUATION OBTAINED BY TRAINED PERSONNEL.

A traditional observation-and-conference ritual was also used as an evaluative feedback technique. Trained personnel would schedule "observations" with the practicum students and then use a lesson observation form adopted by West Virginia University Special Education Department to document the observation. Observers are asked and trained to observe facts not judgements about teaching performance. The observer then discussed the observation with the practicum student following the lesson. The lesson observation form contains the following preteaching, teaching, post-teaching and conference note components: PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION, INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS, CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT, TEACHING METHODS, BEHAVIORAL MANAGEMENT, MOTIVATION AND RAPPORT, EVALUATION, PUPIL RESPONSE, STRENGTHS, WEAKNESSES, AND SUGGESTIONS.

The reader should note that these methods differ with respect to the person who is the observer. In the videotaped/microcomputer method, the actual practicum student "observes," whereas in the traditional written observation method, an "outsider" makes the evaluation write up.

PROCEDURES

The twenty-two participants in the Rural BD Project were asked to answer a questionnaire upon the completion of their practicum experience. Questionnaires were mailed to participants after they had finished all coursework, observations, classroom assignments and exit interviews with co-operating teachers and university supervisors . Data was collected anonymously and 19 of the 22 respondents returned their instruments.

The questionnaire consisted of four sections. Parts I and II contained 13 identical statements which probed for objectivity, efficiency, teaching effectiveness, and self evaluation of teaching behaviors regarding the evaluative effectiveness of videotaped teaching segments and the written evaluative feed back, respectively. Participants rated the effectiveness of each method using a Likert scale format of 1-5 ranging from not effective to most effective.

Section III required participants to indicate their choice of which method, video or written feedback, was most effective and to elaborate on the following statements:

1. I feel this method was best because........
2. If I could change one or two things in the system, I would........
3. Describe the most significant change resulting from the video/computer feedback.
4. Describe the most significant change resulting from feedback received from the traditional written evaluation with feedback.
5. What change would you rank as most significant in improving your effectiveness as a teacher?

FINDINGS

The average scores for all of the items in Section I (video/computer) were higher (11) or equal to (2) the same statements in Section II (written feedback) except for "provides information which increases awareness of own teaching style." This item received a 3.7 rating on Section I and a 3.8 on Section II. The highest rated statement for Section I was "provides means for students to assess his/her own behavior," while the highest rated assessment for Section II (written feedback) was "provides a means for objective assessment of teaching behavior."

All of the statements averaged 3.0 or above for both sections with the exception of "provides information to increase awareness of individual behavior dynamics in the classroom " (2.9). The statement, which rated equally for both sections, were "provides information which may heighten awareness of teaching activities," and "provides information regarding the effectiveness of teaching behaviors in the classrooms."

The lowest rated statement for Section I (video/computer) was "provides information to increase awareness of group behavior dynamics" (3.4) while the lowest rated statement for Section II (written feedback) was "provides information to increase awareness of individual behavior dynamics in the classroom." (2.9).

In Section III, nine participants rated the video/computer feedback as most effective, five participants indicated written feedback was most effective, and five participants wrote in "combination" of the two methods was most effective. This response was not a choice option on the questionnaire, but was an unsolicited addition by the respondents.

The major themes which emerged from those responses indicating video/computer feedback as the most effective were the enhanced concept of self evaluation, awareness of own teaching behaviors, and the ability to subsequently modify these behaviors. Responses reflected the video/computer method's positive aspects of objectivity and concrete information. In addition, respondents felt that the video/computer feedback method allowed for gaining specific information about teaching behavior, such as amount of time spent on different teaching tasks as well as actual frequency counts of positive and negative feedback given to students.

Reasons given for choosing the traditional written feedback methods as most effective included the personal component of interacting with a real person and the immediate sharing of new ideas and methods. Respondents who chose this method indicated there were more opportunities to discuss concerns and problems. In addition, participants felt that evaluators could see the total classroom picture and use this information in making comments.

Participants who wrote in the combination of video/computer and written feedback as their choice for the most effective method of evaluation indicated the complimentary nature of both methods as the reason for their choice. Participants expressed the view that both methods were valuable for different reasons and each one made up for the shortcomings of the other. Respondents wrote that the video/computer methods strength was in the means it provided for self awareness and critique, while the traditional written method was useful for development of new ideas and suggestions from other sources. The objectivity/concrete aspect of the video/computer sampling and coding of teaching behavior compensated for the subjectivity nature of the personal written observation evaluations.

The responses to what might be changed in the system centered around the desire for more time and conferencing spent with evaluators. The opportunity to visit other practicum sites to compare methods and situations was noted as a suggestion to further enhance the methods for evaluation.

In describing the most significant change resulting from video/computer feedback, participants mentioned increased awareness of teaching behaviors, including the amount of time spent on the various teaching activities and interactions, as well as the amount of positive and negative feedback given in their classrooms. Respondents said this awareness allowed them to increase direct instructional teaching time, to become organized and more motivated, and willing to make constructive changes in their teaching behaviors.

The most significant changes resulting from traditional written feedback were reinforcement and encouragement given by another person, as well as suggestions and new ideas which were provided to facilitate changes in methods, instructional and behavioral programming. Heightened awareness of teaching behavior was also listed.

The change which was ranked as the most significant for improveing effectiveness as a teacher involved the benefits of videotaping in light of enhanced precision in teaching, added control, and heightened awareness for change.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

Participants, when given a choice between traditional evaluations or video taping self evaluations utilizing a microcomputer to code teaching behaviors, preferred the video tape with behavior feedback option by approximately a 2 - 1 margin. One half of those participants who did not choose this option supported the technological format of evaluation as a complimentary adjunct to traditional evaluations. With the use of videotape and a microcomputer coding system, this type of evaluation strategy may easily be applied to supervision of practicum students in rural settings. This strategy has also been recommended and seems appropriate for teacher performance appraisal by local education agency personnel, and building principals (Hoover, 1984).

This "If I can see myself, I can change" concept (Rogers, 1987) also lends itself to peer review and peer discussion for collaborative problem solving. Finally, such a technique can be implemented by teachers who wish to engage in self-improvement and are not fortunate enough to have a local person with the professional capacity to assist them in their specialty area, a problem which many isolated rural special educators experience.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Pauline J. Lambeth
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

Pauline J. Lambeth, Ph.D.
Oklahoma State University
305 N. Murray Hall
Stillwater, Ok. 74078

Using the House-Tree-Person (H-T-P) as a Method to Understanding Individual Cultural Differences Among Children

Pauline J. Lambeth
Oklahoma State University

Paper presented at the annual conferences of the
American Council on Special Education
Nashville, Tn.
March, 1991

RUNNING HEAD: H-T-P

Abstract

Finding innovative and effective methods to infer the ability of students with cultural diversity continues to present a problem for educators (Salvia & Ysseldyke, 1991). The need to establish rapport and meaningful communication preexists the need to establish vocabulary (academic) levels and levels of psychological functioning. The purpose of this paper is to propose the use of the House-Tree-Person (H-T-P), a projection technique, as a technique for school educators to gather important data regarding student functioning without the use of culturally biased instruments. Categories for data collection and useful criterion marks are presented. Caution is advised for professional ethics and standards regarding classroom use of projective tests.

Need

Educators are confronting complex issues affecting decisions to use assessment data. Meeting the individual needs of all learners requires a sensitive knowledge of the learner's strengths and needs in all educational areas, including the affective domain. Teachers plan, implement and evaluate curriculum based on the learner's cognitive abilities, communication skills, knowledge in content areas, social awareness and psychological development. Concurrent to the demands for those data are the warnings of the consequences and dangers of misuse of tests and measures Salvia & Ysseldyke, (1991).

Standards

Salvia and Ysseldyke (1991) promote the following professional standards for the ethical use of assessment data:

1. Responsibility for the consequences of one's work. The results of an H-T-P assessment may bring about a surfacing or resurrecting of problems of a more serious nature than anticipated.
2. Recognizing the boundaries of one's competence. It is important that professionals regularly engage in self-assessment to be aware of their limitations and recognize the limitations of the tools used in any type of assessment. Results of the H-T-P are not conclusive.
3. Confidentiality of information. Drawings in the H-T-P may arouse associations within the student of a very sensitive nature, regarding his/her home life and experiences, exposing information not otherwise available to the teacher/ counselor.
4. Adherence to professional standards on assessment. There is no state & federal agency that acts to limit the publication or general use of tests. Therefore, it is important to use professional judgment regarding the use of the H-T-P and other assessment instruments.
5. Test security. Teachers/Counselors must maintain test security. It is expected that information obtained in confidence, using the H-T-P, is treated in a professional manner.

It is not intended that the use of this technique as presented, be other than that of a means of establishing rapport, to establish or regain communication between teacher/counselor and student, or as an aid to facilitate interpersonal interaction with students that may result in more accuracy in assessing students needs.

Drawings

Drawings have been used for many years to evaluate the affective domain of children. Generally, children's reaction to formal testing is a high level of anxiety coupled with the constant awareness of passing or failing. The advantage of projective techniques, as opposed to objective test items, instruments or questionnaires, is the subject's unlimited range of responses. The confinement to the circling of yes or no is eliminated. Projective techniques allow subjects more freedom: this freedom in spontaneous thinking is described as "response free".

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to advance the concept of ethical use of the H-T-P in the classroom. The criteria for the categories of cognitive ability, communication skills, knowledge in content areas, social awareness and psychological development are given (see table 1).

The House-Tree-Purpose was introduced by Buck (1948) using the instructions, "I would like you to draw a house, I would like you to draw a tree, and I would like you to draw a whole person". Subjects are asked to make free-hand drawings, each on an 8 1/2" X 11" sheet of paper, and are given almost complete freedom in the manner in which they perform. Should the protest arise, as often does, of not being an artist, subjects are assured that the H-T-P is not a test of artistic ability. The paper is presented horizontally for the house and vertically for the person and tree. The H-T-P has been demonstrated as a useful and presently substantiated empirical and protocol technique. It is easy to administer, and rapid.

Later research brought a fourth picture, that of a person of the opposite sex (Machover, 1949). Several other authors have since continued to contribute to the research for using pictures as an assessment method (Burns, 1987: Knoff & Prout, 1985). The Kinetic-House-Tree-Person (K-H-T-P), advocated in Knoff and Prout, (1985) requires subjects to draw the house, the tree and the person on one sheet of paper (8 1/2 X 11"). According to Buck (1966), the specific objects of the house, tree, and person were found to be more universally accepted by subjects of all ages than other experimental materials. In addition, these objects appeared to generate richer verbal spontaneity than other objects. After all drawings are completed, the subject is required to tell something about each picture. Haworth & Rabin (1960), commented that subjects experience a reduction of tension and react with pleasure, enthusiasm and feelings of security as it is an activity in which they feel comfortable.

Method

For a period of ten years, 200 protocols were collected of H-T-P drawings from culturally diverse subjects from ages five to sixty five. This instrument was used as a tool in establishing necessary positive rapport with a subject in order to facilitate and assess effective communication. The use of the H-T-P may, however, result in the discovery of more intense problems of behavior that would entail the services of a clinician with extensive training and experience.

Results

The various specific uses of the H-T-P are described as to areas of ability within the curriculum.

Social Awareness: Objects basically familiar to students are presented creating a stimulus from which attitudes are projected: Students have verbalized about appropriate and inappropriate behavior of the people drawn in the H-T-P and made statements both positive and negative about "looks" appearance.

Communication Skills: The H-T-P allows each student to describe/define what he/she has drawn, revealing information about the students abilities to exhibit skills in sequential, detailed, or complete thought processes: Descriptions from students have included information such as orchards in "fruit bearing" season, the progression of the "growing" season, from spring to summer, in response to the drawing of the tree.

Cognitive abilities: A subject may through his/her comments, reveal the fact that he/she has real critical abilities: The verbal description of the house have included structural materials used in building, the method used in "bricking" a house, and the advantages of one type of building material as opposed to another.

Knowledge in Content Areas: Organizational skills and information on cause and effect are indicators of strength in content areas: Students have verbalized, while drawing each pictures, information about the placement of each picture on the page, type of weather condition in the picture, and the effects that weather condition has on the items in the picture drawn.

Psychological Development: Drawings may depict decisiveness, and impetus toward tasks: Students reveal eagerness and delight prior to and during the drawing of pictures, by positioning themselves on the edge of the seat, stretching arms, smiling, and sometimes making such statements as "Now I can draw some pictures", or "Ok!, I like this".

Discussion

Assessment data gained from sources other than the culturally biased instruments traditionally used, increases the level of accuracy of identification of affective and cognitive needs of students with culturally diverse backgrounds. The H-T-P projective technique is unstructured in design and tends to be a less threatening tool of assessment. The use of a tool with this design, eliminates cultural bias, increases the opportunities for identifying cognitive, communicative, and content abilities, provides the teacher/counselor the opportunity to address the need to establish a mutual trust between students and themselves, and brings about multicultural sensitivity so needed in rural areas. The more informed teachers are about their students needs and abilities, the more precise they are in creating a positive, progressive learning environment relevant to a student's instructional and affective needs.

Table 1

Criterion

Categorical Abilities

I. Cognitive Abilities:
   1. Used reasoning for drawing certain types of pictures.
   2. Identified detail in pictures.
   3. Quickness of warm-up.
   4. Responded readily with ideas.
   5. Used comparative terminology

II. Communication Skills :
   1. Responded to questions.
   2. Volunteered additional information.
   3. Elaborated on contents of drawings.
   4. Initiated conversation.
   5. Asked numerous questions.

III. Social Awareness:
   1. Other individuals mentioned in relationship to self.
   2. Responded the importance of self.
   3. Commented on "appropriate" dress of males and females.
   4. Discussed respect of others.
   5. Responded to questions of his/her "place" in family, community, world.

IV. Psychological Development:
   1. Spoke with self-confidence.
   2. Comfortable with authority figure.
   3. Responded freely to plans for the future.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Teri Bell
Co-Presenter: Kay Bull
Diane Montgomery
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

Teri L. Bell
Kay S. Bull
B. Keith Salyer
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Perceptions of Future Special Education Teachers Concerning Rural Teaching Environments

Oklahoma State University

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Abstract

In an effort to ascertain the desired teaching location of beginning special education teachers, 588 student members of Council for Exceptional Children representing 49 universities were questioned. Generally, they reported that they were in special education for altruistic motives. They viewed suburban locations for teaching as the most desirable from both social, economic and educational support perspectives. Students who grew up in rural areas were more likely to favor returning to rural areas to teach than those from urban or suburban areas but only 20% were so inclined.

The variables which drew beginning teachers to school districts were care for students, parental involvement and educational resources. Districts which could provide these should have few recruiting problems, no matter where they are located. However for our students, other things being equal, the majority, over 60%, desired suburban placements, 23% desired rural placements and urban placement came in last. The major issue seems to be one of socialization in these choices. Salaries do not seem to be an issue for any except those who want to teach in urban areas.

Perceptions of Future Special Education Teachers Concerning Rural Teaching Environments

For many rural communities, the recruitment and retention of special educators has emerged as a prominent concern. In the 1983 National Rural Project survey (Helge,1983), only 17% of the districts surveyed related that they had an adequate number of special education personnel.

Rural school districts across the country are confronting a dilemma unique to their geographical location. While there may be a shortage of teachers in rural districts, urban districts experience other prominent difficulties. These problems influence young teachers when they decide where they will apply for teaching positions. In urban school districts, the plight of teaching children who lead lives outside the school more financially and socially rewarding than the school curriculum is a prominent problem teachers must face (Grant 1989). While urban districts are trying to meet the needs of a changing school population, rural districts are finding that recruitment and retention of qualified teachers is their main concern. Helge (1984) in her study concerning rural special education found that 94% of the states responding to a national survey reported recruitment and retention as a major problem in rural education agencies. With rural schools comprising the majority of the nation's educational systems, it is evident that a viable solution is needed to solve the rural recruitment and retention problems.

Why has the recruitment of educators and special educators into rural communities become such a difficult task? Bryant (1987) notes that pay differences between small and large schools, the quality of goods and services, working conditions, and the vulnerability to change may give larger schools an edge. Rural cultural factors such as conservatism and suspicion of outside interferences combined with long distances to travel under adverse circumstances created serious problems in recruiting and retaining qualified personnel (Helge,1981). Davis (1987) reported that 81% of the rural regular and special education teachers he surveyed expressed great concern about feelings of professional isolation. Davis continued by stating that even in consolidated rural districts, teachers reported a sense of professional isolation whenever they were unable to interact with staffs of other schools or stimulated by educational presentations related to their specific areas of professional needs.

Helge (1981) added that attitudinal problems clearly prolonged the time required to make programmatic changes. Unique problems exist for special education teachers who may offer the only program of its kind within a district (Kirmer, Lockwood, Mickler & Sweeney, 1984). Not only is the relative isolation from other special educators a factor in recruitment and retention, but the limited staff development opportunities create stressors in personnel retention.

Professional isolation common to many rural areas is compounded by a sense of social and geographical isolation. Davis (1987) defined social isolation as the separation from the amenities of urban life, such as medical specialists, extensive shopping opportunities and cultural institutions. Rural teachers often experience difficulty in locating adequate housing when assigned to a small community. Small towns and communities limit privacy (Williams and Cross, 1985). Teachers are more visible in the small communities in which they live (Barker, 1985; Hoyt, 1981; Sher, 1977). This makes dating more difficult (Muse, Parsons & Heppe, 1975). Helge (1981) found that social isolation, extreme weather conditions and inadequate housing make it difficult to employ special education teachers. Sher (1974) asserts that many of the best teachers select urban communities where they find greater opportunities in terms of the education of their own children, medical services, cultural opportunities and entertainment.

The interaction of social, cultural and professional concerns influences the recruitment and retention of qualified educators in rural communities. Teacher education programs have been noted by some as a resolution to this multifaceted issue. Sher (1978) proclaimed that only a handful of higher education institutions offer training programs for teachers preparing for rural service. New programs must be created in order to build a corp of teachers who are adequately prepared for the unique challenges of rural schools.

Examining perceptions of preservice teachers toward school locations may yield a number of stereotypes about school districts which potentially influence where young teachers choose to teach (Gleadow & Bandy, 1980; Bull & Hyle 1989). For example, rural districts are typically seen as being poor in money resources (Williams & Cross, 1985). The culture within rural areas is viewed as setting strict limits on what teachers can do socially (Sharp, 1974). Stereotypically, rural areas are believed to be less available places to live, least affordable housing (Helge & Mans, 1981), limited entertainment, limited police services, different value systems (Swift, 1984), limited special interest organizations and fraternal of social organizations. On the other hand, it may be perceived that rural school districts have fewer discipline problems and the problems are less severe than their urban counterparts. They also are likely to have more parent involvement because the students are more involved; stronger local control/administration and so forth. Socialization opportunities are likely to be limited in rural ares. The more different the teacher is racially, sexually, in dress, and other areas, the more likely they are to standout in public eye.

There are a number of reasons that people want to teach in special education, some of which may impact recruitment. These include having a special person in one's immediate family, having had previous experiences with exceptional persons, taking course work in exceptionality, knowing about teacher shortages in special education (Bull & Hyle, 1989) and wanting to help the less fortunate. All of these are altruistic reasons for wanting to teach special education. Others, who are more external, talk of higher pay for special education teachers (Seifert & Kurtz, 1983), reduced class size (Bull & Hyle, 1990) and less administration control and interference. When we look at the perceptions of rural and urban teachers knowing their rationale for coming into the field may improve recruiting.

The purpose of this investigation was to determine what attitudes future special educators have regarding urban, suburban, and rural teaching environments. Attitudes concerning social, cultural, personal, and professional issues were assessed.

Methodology

Subjects

A list of universities (N=223) currently maintaining a Student Council for Exceptional Children organization was purchased from Council for Exceptional Children. The advisors or presidents of these groups were contacted to obtain access to students in undergraduate special education classes. Sixty-six leaders responded and of these forty-nine were able to distribute questionnaires. Constraints to participation were that some colleges were on a quarter system, some were not able to distribute questionnaires within the time, and some were not meeting during the questionnaire time frame. The final sample was comprised of undergraduate special education majors enrolled at forty-nine universities. Each of the advisors or presidents was given twenty-five questionnaires to distribute. In some cases, this was more than the number of Student Council for Exceptional Children students enrolled in the chapter. The total number of questionnaires distributed was 1225. Of these 588 were returned. This yielded a return rate of 48%.

Not surprising, the subjects for this study were predominantly female (N=521) with a few males (N=61). The average age was 25 years. Most were single (N=411), with some married (N=147) and a few divorced (N=22) and widowed (N=3). Subjects were mainly caucasian (N=529) with a scattering of minorities (Black=10, Indian=20, Hispanic=12, and Oriental=5). They were preparing to teach Emotionally Disturbed (N=254), Sensory Impaired (N=68), Learning Disabled (N=362), Mentally Handicapped (N=328) and Physically Handicapped (N=163). When asked the level at which they wanted to teach, 103 desired primary; 290 desired elementary; 73 chose junior high and 100 wanted high school. When asked where they grew up, 112 were raised in urban areas; 168 in suburban areas; 276 in rural areas; and 26 in a mixture of the three. The great majority did not have a relative with learning problems (N=437) but 141, more than one would expect by chance, did have such a relative.

Instument

The questionnaire (See Appendix A), was composed of 67 questions focusing on cultural, social and professional issues. Perceptions concerning urban, suburban and rural environments were solicited with additional questions concerning how these perceptions will influence their future career decisions. This questionnaire had been previously reviewed by a number of rural special educators and special education faculty members to insure content validity.

Results

Included in the questionnaire were questions relating to the respondents' perceptions of special education, why they were in special education and what their expectations were. The instrument also assessed their perceptions of school districts by location (urban, rural, suburban) and whether or not things like teachers salaries, resources, etc. would influence their choice of work location. Subjects were asked about their perceptions of setting (rural, urban, suburban) and various social problems which might be evinced therein. Finally they were asked about locations in terms of their perceptions of the location, e.g., availability of housing and whether or not this would be an influence on their choice of work location. The majority wanted to teach in suburban districts (N=356), followed by rural (N=135) and urban (N=65). Below we examine each of these areas in summary and by individual items to see if those who were raised in different locations respond differently.

Perceptions of Special Education

Seven reasons for being special educators were presented. Each of these were analyzed using a one-way (rural, urban, suburban) ANOVA examining level of influence. None were found to be significantly different. Data were analyzed for both growing up location and desired teaching location. Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations for the seven reasons by each set of locations.

Four expectations about special education were examined. Again, these were compared by location in which the students had been raised using one-way ANOVAs. There were no significant differences. Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations.

Examining the reasons for being a special education, Table 1, we see that there are no differences by either growing up or desired teaching location. The items which have the strongest influence are desire to help the less fortunate, shortages of special education teachers, personal contact with an exceptional child and a desire to work with children who are rejected by other teachers. Generally then, the motive is altruistic. The same relationships hold whether the data is divided on where the students grew up or where they desire to teach. The same relationships hold when expectations are examined in Table 2. Again there are no differences by location and having had previous contact with an exceptional individual as an influence of choice of major.

Examining Table 3 we see that in relation to perceptions of school districts there were significant main effects and interactions for both growing up location and desired teaching location for both positively and negatively worded items. Looking at the positive items we see that those who grew up in rural areas looked most positively on rural areas, but a smaller number felt this was true in terms of where they desire to teach. In terms of desire to teach, suburban areas are thought to be almost equal to rural placements. Table 3B shows negative items. It follows the same pattern with the urban placement being seen as the least desirable. Those who grew up in rural areas show the fewest negative responses for rural areas.

Perceptions of Districts

District perceptions were summed and analyzed using two 3x3 ANOVAs; one for positive and one for negative items. Table 3 provides their results. The main effects and interactions are graphed in Tables 3A and 3B. Individual by item analyses were conducted across groups using one-way AVOVAs to determine which variables had the most influence for the various groups. The data were examined for both growing up location and desired teaching location. These data are reported in Table 4.

When we examine these ANOVAs, we find one significant difference based on where the students grew up. That significant item is rural students are less influenced by the availability of resources than are suburban raised students. A similar pattern is found for resources based on desired teaching location; teachers who desire rural placements are less influenced by the availability of resources. Those who desire rural placements are less influenced by negative attitudes toward exceptional children than are those who desire suburban placements. Rural placement teachers are also less influenced by salaries and resources than are those who desire suburban and urban placements. When looking at the means of the items that influence, we see that (Table 4) three aspects of districts have the most overall influence: being supportive of special education students, higher levels of parent involvement and provisions of resources. The three least influential are: having few, or many discipline problems, and high salaries.

Perceptions of Social Settings

All social setting items were summed and subjected to a location (rural, urban, and suburban) by child residency location ANOVA (3X3). Its results were reported in Table 5. By Item results for social settings are reported in Table 6 in percentage form. This data consistently indicates that most subjects believe that rural settings would show the greatest number of problems.

Examining Table 5 perceptions of social settings we see that there are no differences based on where the potential teachers grew up or where they desire to teach. This means that there are no differences by locations.

When we examine the social settings by percentages we see that (Table 6) in nearly all cases rural settings are viewed as having significant problems, e.g., in dating, socializing, dress, entertainment, cultural isolation, gay/lesbian relationships, living with a significant other, being divorced, etc. Only in single parenting does the urban environment come close to that of the rural environment when acception problems are envisioned. This provides a rationale for why so many want to teach in a suburban area.

Perceptions of Locations

Location perceptions were summed and analyzed using two a 3x3 ANOVAs for positive and negative items. Table 7 provides their results. Table 7A show the results of group analysis. Individual item analyses were conducted across location groups to determine differential influences. Table 8 shows the item one-way ANOVAs for both growing up location and desired teaching location. Table 9 show the overall level of influence perceived by prospective teachers for variables related to locations.

The ANOVA for perceptions by location table shows differences by location for growing up and desired teaching location for negative but not for positive items. Generally there are more negative perceptions based on a desired teaching location than there are based on where the prospective teachers grew up. Urban settings are seen as more negative overall but interesting those who grew up rural see more negatives, from desired teaching location than do others.

When the individual items are examined they show (Table 8) a number of differences by growing up location: having available housing is less of an influence for suburban and rural students than it is for urban students. Having economic stability is less of an influence for rural than for urban students. Rural students are less influenced by the availability of entertainment than are urban or suburban students. When we look at desired teaching location the same pattern is shown. Rural students are less influence by availability of housing, economic stability, entertainment opportunities and finding dates than are those who desire to teach in urban and suburban settings.

When we examine the overall means (Table 9) we see that the strongest influences in location is a high crime rate (avoids the location). Followed by cost, housing availability and economic stability. The least influence is availability of dates and entertainment opportunities.

Discussion

In terms of recruiting those who are to become special education teachers those who hire from suburban districts should have the easiest job. Our prospective teachers think that rural areas have the most problems, unless you grew up rural. In terms of where they grew up and where they wanted to teach there seems to be no difference on why they want to be special educators. Across the entire group, desire to help the less fortunate and being in contact with exceptional children lead to becoming special educators.

In terms of issues like salary, resources, and so forth none of these seem to influence those who would teach in rural areas over those who want to teach in other areas. Overall the entire group is most influenced by districts which are supportive of special education, the most resources, and the highest level of parental involvement.

Rural locations are least favored in terms of social setting. We believe this is why most of our subjects do not want to return to teach in rural areas.

Finally, having housing, entertainment opportunities, etc. do not seem to have a high level of influence on desired teaching location.

Most young special education teachers are drawn to teach in districts with good attitudes toward special education children, parental involvement and a commitment of resources. They are also as a class drawn toward the suburbs for social reasons. This does not bode well for either urban or rural districts. The old saying that rural teachers want to return to rural areas does not seem to be supported by these data.

TABLE 1

Means and Standard Deviations for Perceptions of Why They Study Special Education

Growing Up Location	URBAN (N=112)*		SUBURBAN (N=168)		RURAL (N=276)	
	$\overline{X}$	Sx	$\overline{X}$	Sx	$\overline{X}$	Sx
Smaller Class .739 Size	2.143	.837	2.317	.741	2.379	
Higher .666 Pay	2.384	.726	2.512	.687	2.476	
Shortages Teachers	1.631	.713	1.741	.713	1.754	.715
Help Less Fortunate	1.580	.706	1.561	.702	1.511	.698
Personal Contact Exchild	1.661	.766	1.473	.695	1.634	.775
Desire work/w Exchild	1.777	.791	1.777	.797	1.684	.726
Taking Exchild Course	2.143	.837	2.220	.807	2.298	.799

TABLE 1 (Con't)

Desired Teaching Location

	URBAN (N=65)		SUBURBAN (N=358)		RURAL (N=134)	
	$\overline{X}$	S_x	$\overline{X}$	S_x	$\overline{X}$	S_x
Smaller Class .751 Size	2.484	.666	2.331	.750	2.348	
Higher Pay	2.453	.733	2.445	.701	2.550	.585
Shortages Teachers	1.714	.750	1.745	.693	1.624	.714
Help Less Fortunate	1.453	.589	1.550	.714	1.508	.693
Personal Contact Exchild	1.600	.725	1.552	.749	1.692	.780
Desire Work w/ Exchild	1.641	.743	1.720	.770	1.820	.747
Taking Exchild Course	2.204	.820	2.221	.871	2.333	.758

*1=Strong Influence, 2=Slight Influence, 3= No Influence

TABLE 2

Means and Standard Deviations by Growing Up Location for Special Education Expectations

	URBAN (N=65)*		SUBURBAN (N=357)		RURAL (N=133)	
	$\overline{X}$	S_x	$\overline{X}$	S_x	$\overline{X}$	S_x
Additional Pay SPED	1.738	.433	1.804	.398	1.774	.438
Previous Contact SPED Individual	1.169	.378	1.204	.404	1.258	.439
Teacher Shortages SPED	1.338	.477	1.289	.454	1.286	.453
SPED 1 ST Choice	1.662	.477	1.501	.501	1.541	.500

*Yes=1, No=2

TABLE 3

Perception of Districts and Their Problems

Positive (Items 1,2,3,6,7,8)

	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Childhood Residence	88.522	2	44.261	9.101	.000
Desired Teaching	55.880	2	27.940	5.745	.003
Childhood Residence X Desired Teaching	52.837	4	13.209	2.716	.029
Error	2514.268	517	4.863		

Negative (Items 4,5,9,10,11,12,13,14,15)

	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Childhood Residence	121.815	2	60.908	5.471	.004
Desired Teaching	310.865	2	155.432	13.961	.000
Childhood Residence X Desired Teaching	327.633	4	80.658	7.245	.000
Error	5756.133	517	11.134		

TABLE 4

By Item Comparisons on Degree of Influence for Districts

Growing Up Location	F	P	Tukey Post Hocs
High Salary	2.744	NS	
Most Resources	4.008*	.019	R>U
Most Supportive SPED	.390	NS	
Most Discipline Prob	2.260	NS	
Most Severe Discip Prob	.922	NS	
Strongest Administation	.085	NS	
More Parent Involvement	.810	NS	
Most Academic Freedom	.155	NS	
Strictest Limits Teach	1.514	NS	
Least Parent Involvement	1.788	NS	
Weakest Administration	1.199	NS	
Least Discipline Probs	1.815	NS	
Highest Neg Att Exchild	1.468	NS	
Lowest Salaries	.320	NS	
Least Resources	.268	NS	

*1=Strong Influence, 2=Influence, 3=No Influence

Desired Teaching Location

	F	P	Tukey Post Hocs
High Salary	7.198	.001	R>S,R>U
Most Resources	8.094	.000	R>S,R>U
Most Supportive SPED	2.475	NS	
Most Discipline Probs	1.152	NS	
Most Severe Discip Probs	1.495	NS	
Strongest Administration	2.896	NS	
More Parent Involvement	.302	NS	
Most Academic Freedon	1.538	NS	
Strictest Limits Teachers	.339	NS	
Least Parent Involvement	1.242	NS	
Weakest Administration	.717	NS	
Least Discipline Probs	.370	NS	
Highest Neg Att Exchild	6.917	.001	R>S
Lowest Salaries	9.493	.000	R>S,R>U
Least Resources	5.011	.007	R>S,R>U

TABLE 4 A

Means and Standard Deviations of Amount of Influence of District Related Items

	$\overline{X}$	S_x
High Salary	1.941	.681
Most Resources	1.593	.620
Most Supportive SPED	1.398	.585
Most Discipline Problems	2.005	.703
Most Severe Discipline Problems	1.888	.730
Strongest Administration	1.725	.673
More Parent Involvenment	1.544	.649
Most Academic Freedom	1.653	.672
Strictest Limits for Teachers	1.824	.686
Most Parental Involvement	1.833	.736
Weakest Administration	1.810	.713
Least Discipline Problems	2.018	.716
Neg Att Toward Exchild	1.717	.746
Low Teacher Salaries	1.939	.699
Least Educational Resources	1.754	.698

TABLE 5

ANOVA Perceptions of Social Setting By Childhood Residence and Desired Teaching Locations

Growing Up Location

P	SS	DF	MS	F	
Childhood Residence	48.495	2	24.247	.588	NS
Desired Teaching	85.166	2	42.583	1.032	NS
Childhood Residence X Desired Teaching	129.003	4	32.251	.782	NS
Error	21332.341	517	41.262		

TABLE 6

Perceptions of Setting and Commitment Problems by Location Items in Percentage

Problems	Where Would It Be a Problem		
	URBAN	SUBURBAN	RURAL
Go to bar with Fellow Teacher	7.48	10.54	78.91
Find a Date	8.84	6.46	81.46
Wear Modern (Radical) Clothing	6.80	6.97	83.84
Go to Theatre/Play	11.22	9.52	69.39
Socialize	12.76	9.69	73.98
Maintain Religious Practices	28.74	8.84	54.59
Deal w/Different Cultural/ Religious Community	24.66	8.67	62.07
Social Isolation	16.33	5.78	73.98
Cultural Isolation	15.48	6.29	74.32
Single Parenting	40.99	8.67	45.75
Gay/Lesbian Relationship	5.01	7.65	81.80
Live with (Married) Significant Other	3.40	10.54	82.31
Be Divorced	6.12	11.56	75.68
Join Special Interest Groups	17.69	11.56	63.61
Join Lodge/Fraternal Organization	18.20	12.41	63.10

TABLE 7

Perceptions of the of Social Setting by Location for Growing Up Location and Desired Teaching Location

Positive (Items 1,2,3,4,5,7,12)

	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Childhood Residence	17.814	2	8.907	1.584	NS
Desired Teaching	21.088	2	10.544	1.875	NS
Childhood Residence X Desired Teaching	46.151	4	11.538	1.937	NS
Error	3078.694	517	5.955		

Negative (Items 6,8,9,10,11,13,14)

	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Childhood Residence	49.952	2	24.976	4.194	.016
Desired Teaching	40.293	2	20.146	3.383	.035
Childhood Residence X Desired Teaching	37.889	4	9.472	1.684	NS
Error	2907.601	517	5.624		

TABLE 8

One Way ANOVAS by Item for Influence of Social Setting Items for Growing up Location and Desired Teaching Location

Growing Up Location	F	P	Tukey Post Hocs
Have Available Housing	4.951	.007	S>U,R>U
Have Affordable Housing	.304	NS	
Economic Stability	3.814	.023	R>U
Entertainment Opportunities	15.605	.000	R>S,R>U
Find Dates	1.755	NS	
High Crime	1.611	NS	
Best Police	.788	NS	
Least Affordable Housing	.328	NS	
Least Available Housing	.487	NS	
Highest Cost	.188	NS	
Limited Entertainment	7.997	.000	R>S,R>U
Low Crime	.224	NS	
Limited Police	.164	NS	
Not Find Dates	2.090	NS	
Desired Teaching Location			
Have Available Housing	7.888	.000	R>S,R>U
Have Affordable Housing	1.496	NS	
Economic Stability	14.424	.000	R>S,R>U
Entertainment Opportunities	37.552	.000	R>S,R>U
Find Dates	12.142	.000	R>S,R>U
High Crime	2.467	NS	
Best Police	.893	NS	
Least Affordable Housing	.386	NS	
Least Available Housing	.898	NS	
Highest Cost	.681	NS	
Limited Entertainment	20.927	.000	R>S,R>U
Low Crime	.766	NS	
Limited Police	.005	NS	
Not Find Dates	7.387	.001	R>S,R>U

TABLE 9

Overall Means and Standard Deviations or Perceptions of influence by Locations

	$\overline{X}$	S_x
Have Available Housing	1.752	.678
Have Affordable Housing	1.637	.654
Economic Stability	1.696	.608
Entertainment Opportunities	2.145	.673
Find Dates	2.431	.691
High Crime	1.588	.660
Best Police	1.782	.609
Least Affordable Housing	1.756	.651
Least Available Housing	1.810	.655
Highest Cost	1.668	.642
Limited Entertainment	2.168	.692
Low Crime	1.787	.630
Limited Police	1.888	.615
Not Finding Dates	2.401	.691

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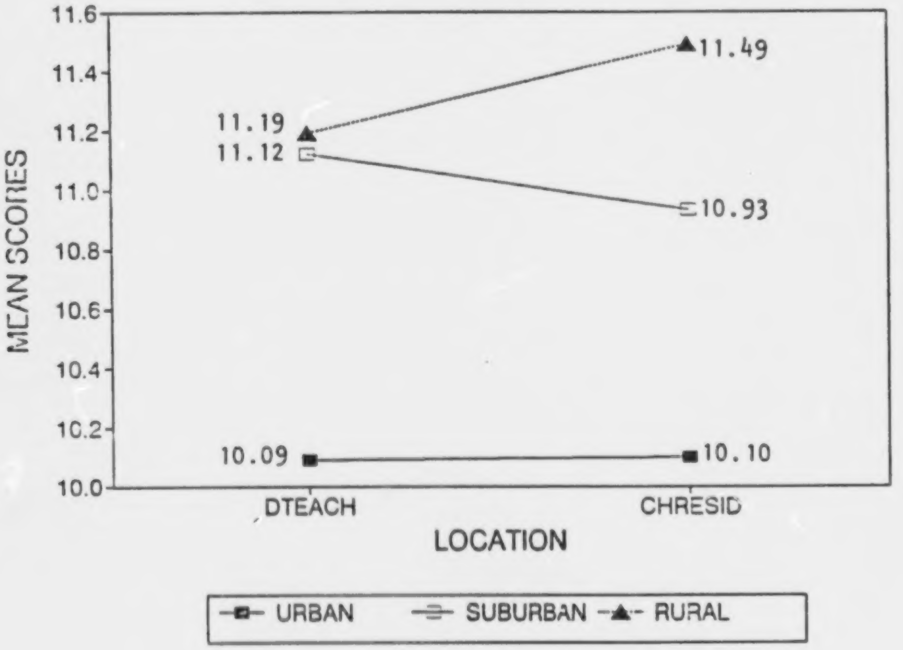
APPENDIX

Graph 1 Perceptions of Districts
Positive Items



Main Effect DTEACH

U<R, U<S

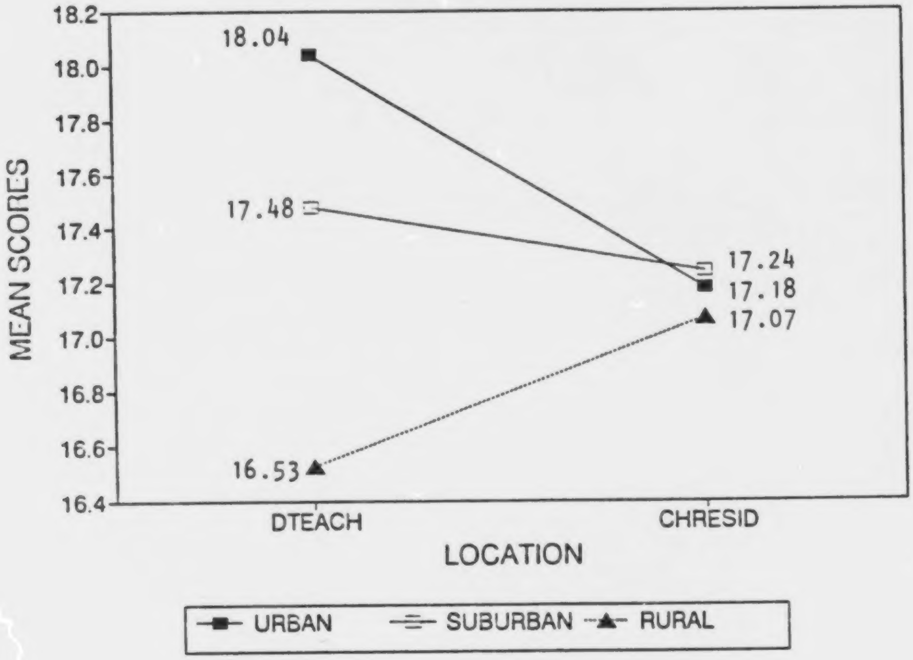
Main Effect Chresid

U<S, U<R, S<R

Interaction

Those who grew up Rural have a somewhat less positive view of Rural Districts if they want to teach there.

Graph 2 Perceptions of Districts
Negative Items



Main Effect DTEACH

R<S,R<U

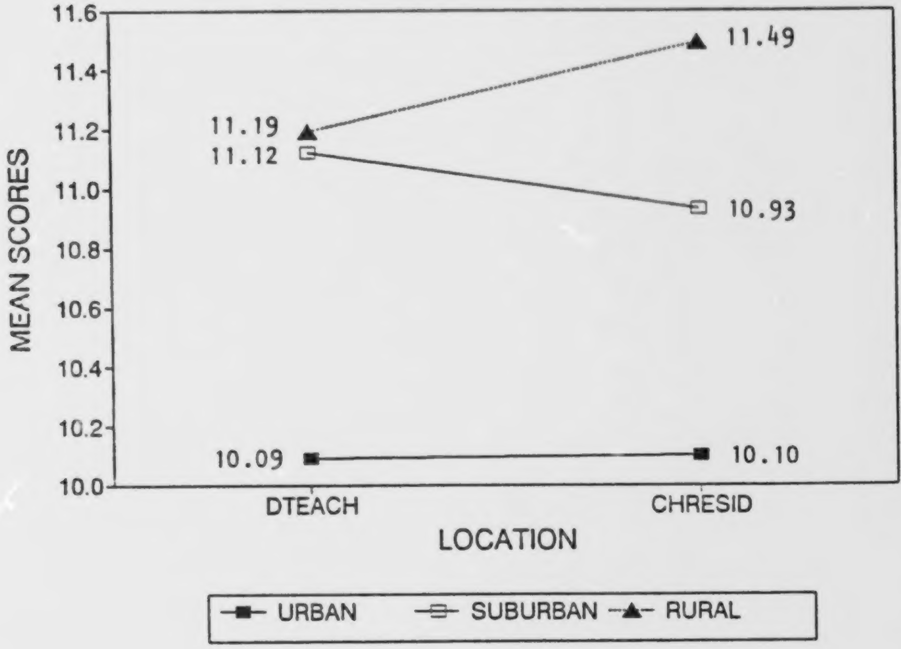
Main Effect Chresid

No sign. diff.

Interaction

Urban increases and Rural
decreases in desire to teach.

Graph 1 Perceptions of Districts
Positive Items



Main Effect Chresid

U<S,U<R,S<R

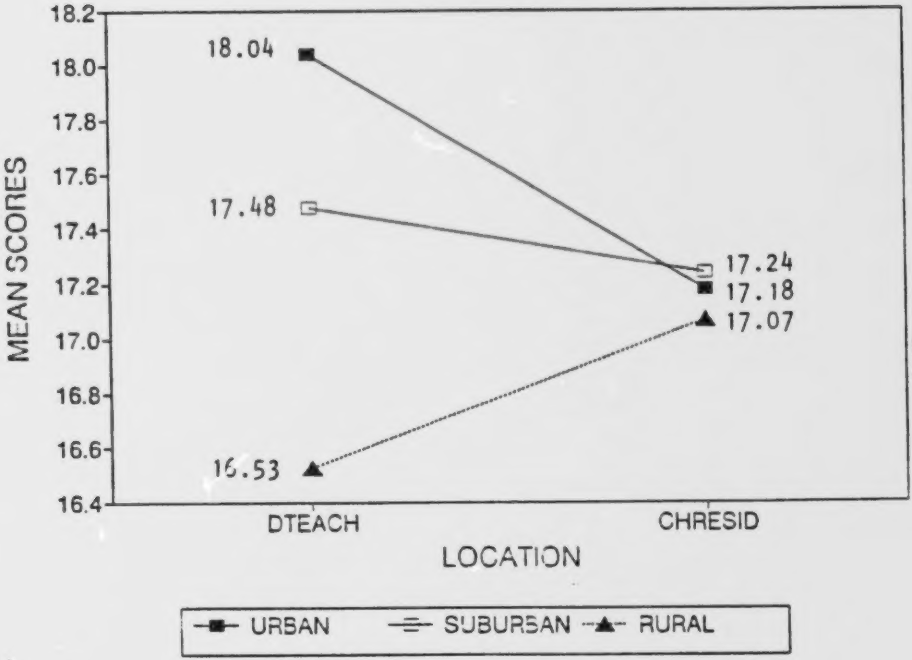
Main Effect DTEACH

U<R,U<S

Interaction

Those who grew up Rural have a somewha less positive view c Rural districts if they want to teach there.

Graph 2 Perceptions of Districts
Negative Items



Main Effect Chre

No Sign. Diff.

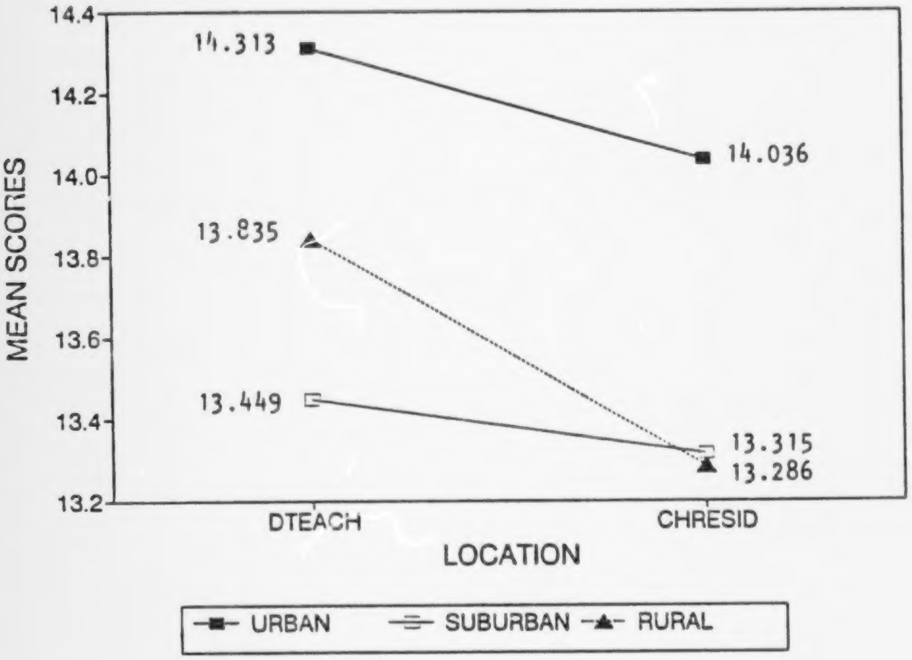
Main Effect DTEA

R<S,R<U

Interaction

Urban increases Rural decreases i desire to teach.

Graph 3 Perceptions of Social Setting
Positive Items



Main Effect DTEACH

U>S

Main Effect CHRESID

U>R

OSU

Oklahoma State University

APPLIED BEHAVIORAL STUDIES IN EDUCATION
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078-0254
NORTH MURRAY HALL 116
405-744-6040

Dear Special Education Major:

We would like to ask your assistance in a research project. The questionnaire which is attached is designed to solicit your opinion on your reasons for being in special education and on rural, urban, and suburban teaching environments. We realize your time is valuable; but if you would take a few minutes to respond, it would be greatly appreciated. Data from this survey will be used to help recruit and place special education teachers in appropriate job environments; therefore, your input is extremely important to the profession..

Please carefully answer all the questions. You will need to circle the appropriate response or fill in the requested information. Your responses will remain confidential.

Thank you in advance for your time and valuable assistance.

Sincerely,

Teri L. Bell

Teri L. Bell
Doctoral Student
Special Education
Oklahoma State University

Pauline Lambeth

Pauline Lambeth
Associate Professor
SCEC Sponsor
Oklahoma State University

CENTENNIAL
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I. Information About You

A. Your Training

1. In which of the following areas are you certified or currently training to be certified? (Check all that apply)

(a) ___Emotionally Disturbed
(b) ___Hearing Impaired
(c) ___Learning Disabled
(d) ___Mentally Handicapped
(e) ___Physically Handicapped
(f) ___Visually Impaired
(g) ___Mildly Handicapped
(h) ___Moderately Handicapped
(i) ___Severely Handicapped
(j) ___Profoundly Handicapped
(k) ___Multihandicapped
(l) ___Other (please list)______________________

2. Which level would you prefer to teach?

___Primary
___Elementary
___Junior/Middle
___High School

B. Your Background

1. Age ______

2. Gender ______Male _______Female

3. Ethnicity (check one)

(a)___Black
(b)___Native American
(c)___Oriental
(d)___Caucasian
(e)___Hispanic
(f)___Other (Specify)______

4. Present marital status (check one)

___Married ___Single ___Divorced ___Widowed

5. Number of children? ______

6. Where did you live during the majority of your childhood?

(a) ___Primarily in an urban area (population greater than 50,000)
(b) ___Primarily in a suburban area (community outside of, but adjoining, a city of 50,000 or more)
(c) ___Primarily in a rural area (population less than 50,000)
(d) ___A mix of the above with less than 50% of the time in any one area.

7. Has anyone in your family ever been educationally diagnosed as having any learning problems?

Yes ___ No ___

II. Perceptions of Special Education

A. Why Are You Studying Special Education

Please select among the following statements the degree to which these factors influenced you in your decision to teach exceptional learners. Use the following key: Strongly Influenced = SI, Slightly Influenced = I, No Influence = NI. Circle your choice.

1. Smaller class size. SI I NI

2. Generally slightly higher pay. SI I NI

3. Shortages in special educators. SI I NI

4. Desire to help the "less fortunate". SI I NI

5. Personal contact with an exceptional child. SI I NI

6. Desire to work with children with whom other teachers prefer not to work. SI I NI

7. Taking a course that introduced you to exceptional children. SI I NI

B. Expectations

1. Some states offer additional pay to work with exceptional children. Did you know that when you chose special education as a major?
___Yes ___No

2. Did you have any previous contact with an exceptional individual prior to choosing your major?
___Yes ___No

3. Were you aware of the shortage of special education teachers across the country before you chose your major?
___Yes ___No

4. Was special education your first choice as a college major?
___Yes ___No

5. Which of the following duties would you expect to perform in the school where you would like to teach?

___Club Sponsor
___Cafeteria Duty
___Bus Driver
___Yearbook/Journalism
___Coaching
___Playground
___Bus Duty

III. Perceptions of Working Locations

A. Perceptions of Districts

SET A	SET B
Based on your opinion, circle the one type of district that you feel is best described by the following statements. Use the following key: Urban = U Suburban = S Rural = R	Would this be an important determinant when you were choosing a work location? Use the following key: Strong Influence = SI Influence = I No Influence = NI

Circle one answer per set.

		SET A			SET B		
1.	Highest teacher's salaries.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
2.	Most educational resources.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
3.	Most supportive to special needs children.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
4.	Most discipline problems.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
5.	Most severe discipline problems.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
6.	Strongest administrators.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
7.	More parental involvement.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
8.	Most academic freedom for teachers.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
9.	Strictest limits set on teachers.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
10.	Least parental involvement.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
11.	Weakest administration.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
12.	Least discipline problems.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
13.	Most negative attitudes towards special needs children.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
14.	Lowest teachers' salaries.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
15.	Least educational resources.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI

B. Perceptions of Settings

1. In which of the following settings Urban = U, Suburban = S, Rural = R would the following be most likely to cause a problem for a new teacher.

   a. Going to a bar with a fellow teacher. U S R

   b. Finding an appropriate person in the community to date. U S R

   c. Wearing modern (radical) clothing. U S R

   d. Going to a theatre or play. U S R

   e. Finding adequate avenues for socialization. U S R

   f. Maintain current religious practices. U S R

   g. Dealing with a specific cultural or religious based community that is different from one's own. U S R

   h. Social isolation. U S R

   i. Cultural isolation. U S R

   j. Single parenting. U S R

   k. Maintaining a gay or lesbian relationship. U S R

   l. Living with an unmarried significant other. U S R

   m. Being divorced. U S R

   n. Joining special interest groups (health, exercise, quilting). U S R

   o. Joining a lodge or fraternal organization. U S R

2. If you were given a choice, which area would you prefer to live? ______Urban ______Suburban ____Rural

3. If given a choice, which type of district would you prefer to teach? ______Urban ______Suburban ______Rural

C. **Perceptions of Locations**

SET A

Based on your opinion, circle the type of location that you feel is best described by the following statements. Use the following key:

Urban = U
Suburban = S
Rural = R

SET B

Would this be an important determinant when you were choosing a work location? Use the following key:

Strong Influence = SI
Influence = I
No = Influence = NI

		SET A			SET B		
1.	Most likely to have available housing?	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
2.	Most likely to have affordable housing.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
3.	Greatest economical stability.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
4.	Greatest selection of entertainment opportunities.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
5.	Greatest opportunity for a single person to find dates.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
6.	Highest possibility of crime.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
7.	Best police protection.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
8.	Least affordable housing.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
9.	Least available housing.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
10.	Highest cost of living.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
11.	Most limited in entertainment.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
12.	Lowest possibility of crime.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
13.	Police protection limited.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI
14.	Least likely to offer single adults the opportunity for dating.	U	S	R	SI	I	NI

Please return this questionnaire to
your SCEC Sponsor or to Teri L. Bell
309 N. Murray Hall
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK 74078

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: John Beard
Co-Presenter: Kay Bull
Diane Montgomery
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

John Beard, Chairperson
Acres Transition Special Interest Group
Humboldt Unified School District

Kay S. Bull & Diane Montgomery
Oklahoma State University

State Directors of Special Education Transition Programs: State Definitions, and Real and Ideal Teacher Competencies

Presented to the American Council on Rural Special Education
Nashville, Tennessee
March, 1991

Abstract

Transition programs have sprung up sporadically throughout the United States in the eighties in response to the identified crisis faced by students who completed or left newly mandated special education classes in public schools. Many of these students were not successful finding or keeping good jobs, living independently in their own homes or conducting satisfying lives. The weight of responsibility to better prepare our young people with disabilities for the realities of life is heavy on the shoulders of schools. The decade of the 1990's brings an era of accountability; a time to evaluate what has been successful and what to recommend to others to try to implement as they develop effective transition programs.

The Transition Special Interest Group (SIG) of the American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES) established as one of its goals to identify the essential components of effective transition programs in the United States. In the first phase of a two phase project, the SIG requested each Director of Special Education at the State Education Agency (SEA) to nominate the ten best transition programs (five rural and five urban) in its state for in-depth study. Of the 50 states and other United States territories (N=60), 38 responded with 230 nominations.

The SIG developed two questionnaires, one for SEA Directors of Transition and one for Transition Program Directors. The first questionnaire, addressed herein, collected information on the definition of transition programs, the possible clients, competencies of teachers which were required and desired, availability of a transition guide, percentage of urban and rural school, providing transition services and the dropout rate of identified clients from transition programs.

Responses from the State Directors indicate that many states are attempting to define transition services, develop effective interagency networks and provide quality programs for the success of special education students life skills, work training and placement. A summary of these definitions is provided. The results indicate additional needs exist in planning Individual Transition Plans and follow-up.

A list of real and ideal characteristics of transition program workers/teachers was developed which should be used by special education teacher training programs in the development of teachers for transition placements. Most of the needed skills for transition are typically not part of the special education teacher training curricula.

State Directors of Special Education Transition Programs: Definition and Real and Ideal Teacher Competencies

As special education faced new challenges in providing services to children with disabilities with the federal mandates of the late 1970's, little was known or conceived in the area of transition to life after school. As the children in the newly-mandated programs grew up, we discovered that traditional curricula failed to prepare some students to be optimally productive within their capabilities. Although PL 94-142 provided free and appropriate services to students with special needs through the age of 21, the core curriculum for post-secondary students with disabilities was seen as discrepant in the eighties as was some high school curricula. The discrepancy revolved around the question of priority: life skills versus academic content.

This oft repeated argument poses two different outcomes for education of the handicapped. The first is an academic model and the second is a life skills model. Life skills include, but are not limited to, employment, independent living, sexual responsibility, appropriate recreation and socialization. For many years, prior to PL 94-142, the schools that served the handicapped at all, served them only in terms of academics. As large numbers of handicapped children were served, it became clear that, at least for some students, the academic curricula was not an appropriate diet if these students were to function successfully in the real world. New responses were needed.

The responses to this need included the classic transition program model proposed by Will (1984) of the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS). The OSERS model made a plea to better move, or transition, students from special education programs in the schools to community environments. Several programs were initiated and opinions about program components were studied (Bellamy, 1985; Halpern, 1985). Evaluations were conducted on these programs and results were reported. The 1990's have brought a need to know what has been tried and what has worked in the transition programs for the nation's young people with disabilities. Accompanying this need is the crucial need to identify the desired training for the teachers and or managers of these programs.

How well are the transition programs working? It is essential to study the assessment, curriculum, interagency networks, evaluation, funding and follow-up components to get a full picture of the successes of the best programs in the nation. Bellamy (1985) points out a need for non-redundant services offered to students. He believes the implications of underuse of community agency and underdevelopment of school programs led to the high family network of employment sources reported in the Hasazi, Gordon & Roe (1985) study. Halpern (1985) in his transition from school to work has multiple outcome goals emphasizing life skills, money management, social interaction and agency utilization as well as full employment. Yet, who is trained to provide these services? Typically, special education teacher training programs do not provide instruction for many of these areas. Depending on the definition of transition services, different methodologies, techniques, and skills may be needed.

Some of the definitional issues in transition deal with the kinds of competencies which are desired by the program graduate. For example, a life skills program focused on residential independence and job placement may be appropriate for some students, but others may need on-the-job training (OJT), study skill development, or vocational counseling. Those who are integrated into regular classes may go directly into job placement; whereas, others may need long term support provided through interagency cooperative planning and parental involvement to become involved in a sheltered work environment and living in a group home. Obviously, there are some definitional issues involved.

This line of reasoning provides evidence for knowing the student who is transitional as a critical factor. Who is provided with transitional services? Also, are there transition options for those not typically included? What does the population definition mean in terms of programs and caregiver training. For example, do transition programs deal with limited English proficiency (LEP) students, gifted students, speech impaired students, academically/economically disadvantaged, etc. As one can see, adding these categories to the typical learning disabled, behaviorally disordered, emotionally disturbed, physically handicapped, educationally mentally handicapped, trainable mentally handicapped, severely mentally handicapped, and so forth, require even broader skills on the part of the caregivers and service providers.

To deal with this broad range of students, our teacher or manager might have to be able to run a Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) program, an adult day care center, a sheltered workshop, a work training center, an enclave, an occupational center, an activity center, a job support network, a half-way house, an independent living network, or other program. He or she would need to know, in addition to teaching skills for students with various handicapping conditions, the policy and regulations for: nursing homes, group homes, foster/family care homes, federal and state laws and mandates related to transition, employment procedures, job coaching, contracts and grants. Any of these skills and knowledges could be needed by a teacher or manager in a transitional program.

The Special Interest Group on Transition (SIG), a task force of the American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES) established as its goal the responsibility of finding out the various goals of transition programs and the needed and required skills to conduct these programs as well as which states thought they had good (exemplary) transition programs. The task force project was divided into two phases: the Nomination Phase and the Inquiry Phase. The Nomination Phase of the project included contacting each Director of Special Education at the State Department of Education for information about the states' mandates, definitions and program components. The Inquiry Phase of the project, which is currently underway, asked each state director to nominate the exemplary programs in that state. The purpose of this paper is to present the results of the Nomination Phase of the Transition Projects, including the data collection plan for the Inquiry Phase.

Method

The instrument requesting basic information about the transition programs by state and nominations of exemplary programs was developed by the members of the SIG task force of ACRES, all of whom are active in special and vocational education and rehabilitation. A mailing list for the Directors of Special Education at the state level included 60 contacts. All states and US territories received the short survey (two-pages, eight questions). Follow-up phone calls were conducted to increase the initial response rate. The calls, which prompted a second mailout in some cases, improved the response rate to 63.3%.

Results

The Directors of Special Education or his/her designee of 34 states and 4 territories responded with information and/or program nominations. Nominations were made for rural (N=115) programs and urban (N=115) programs.

Most respondents said that in their state at least half of their school districts had transition programs. Only two states said that less than 10% of their districts had transition programs and three states said that 90-99% had transition programs. When asked about rural districts specifically, more than 50% of the respondents said that only 30% of rural districts had transition programs. This might be expected as suburban and urban districts are typically larger than rural districts and therefore logically contain more clients. These data indicate that many states had numerous transition programs. These must be viewed data carefully in light of the number of programs which districts were asked to nominate as exemplary. Each state/territory was asked to nominate five rural and five urban programs which exemplified the best practices in transition so that we could do the second phase of this study (see Questionnaire Appendix A). Of the 380 possible nominations, only 230 were made (60% of those possible). Considering the large number of districts with potential for having transition programs, the limited number nominated is, we believe, indicative of tentative or beginning nature of transition programs in many locations.

Each respondent was asked to identify components of transition as defined in their state. The results are provided in Table 1. The most frequently identified components include interagency cooperative planning, community integration, on the job training, vocational rehabilitation counseling and parental involvement.

Table 2 shows the numbers of states that provide transition services to various categories of students. It is interesting to note that EMH students are the most likely to be served in transition programs, but that they are only served in 63% of the states. This indicates a great deal of variability in who the clientele are for transition programs.

Finally, we asked each SEA director or designee what the required and desired competencies were for those special education teachers involved in the transition process. The responses are listed in Table 3. Upon examination of the nongeneric (e.g., special education related) items, we see that those competencies that are typically required are related to PL 94-142 rules and regulations, independent living skills, school planning and parent involvement. These are skills which would be required in almost any special education training program. Interestingly, the one indicated as being required most, "written and oral communications skills", is only thought to be required by 71% of the respondents.

The most desired competencies that are not typically required are public relations skills, interagency coordination skills, job coaching, development of management of job support networks, employment procedures, community planning teams and so forth. These competencies are desired by at least half of the respondents. Logically, these competencies become prime candidates for addition to special education training programs, particularly those which focus on secondary or transitional processes.

Interestingly, a number (14) of states have tried to spell out these competencies and other transitional procedures. These fourteen states have published transition guides which are available through the SEA's.

Discussion

The completion of the Nomination Phase of the project has successfully led to the identification of 230 programs in 34 states and 4 U.S. territories for further study. Most states have reported to have in name transition programs in most of their school districts. The efficacy of these is somewhat in doubt because of the failure to nominate a full quota of exemplary programs.

The investigation of state definitions of transition resulted in many states having basically the same kinds of components in their definitions. A composite definition of transition generated from this listing might look like this: "Transition is a process of community integration brought about through interagency cooperative planning which involves parents and develops through on-the-job training, vocational rehabilitation, individual competence in the community and on the job using a life skills curriculum, IEPs are integrated with the students coursework in regular and special education."

It is interesting and instructive to think about who is served in these states. Almost all of the typical federal definition categories are served. As one would expect, EMH and TMRs are served the most.

The required and desired competencies produce a list of knowledges and skills which should be added to special education teacher training curricula either in the form of a new certification or as an addition to the competencies required by regular special education teachers. This listing is shown in Table 4.

Finally, based upon the responses of 63% of the SEA's in the United States and its territories, we would argue that these curricular additions be implemented forthwith. There are large numbers of students in special education classes in the United States at this time. Many at-risk high school students are in special education classes and it has become crucial that transition programs are offered these students. The SEA desired competency list clearly shows that even when there are transition programs, slightly more than 50% of the time, it is unlikely that the teacher will be fully competent to conduct appropriate transition activities without further training.

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Table 1. Frequency and Percent of Respondents Indicating Components of Definition
Question: How is transition defined in your state (check all that apply):

	n*	Percent
Residential independence	24	63.2
Interagency cooperative planning	33	86.8
Community integration	32	84.2
Life skill curriculum	27	71.1
IEP development process	28	73.7
Parental involvement	30	78.9
On-the-job training	31	81.6
Study skill development	17	44.7
Individual competence in community	28	65.8
Student living choice	15	44.7
Shared resource approach	25	65.8
Vocational rehabilitation counseling	30	78.9
Integrated schools with special/regular classes	23	60.5
Job placement	28	73.7
Other components	11	28.9

Note: *n = frequency of response

Table 2. Frequency and Percent of Responses Serving Categories of Students in Transition Programs

Question: For which of the following groups of students do you require transition services (Check all that are appropriate):

	n*	Percent
Educable Mentally Handicapped (EMH/EMR)	24	63.2
Trainable Mentally Retarded (TMR)	23	60.5
Severely Mentally Retarded (SMR)	21	55.3
Profoundly Mentally Retarded (PMR)	21	55.5
Learning Disabled (LD)	21	55.5
Emotionally/Behaviorally Disordered (ED/BD)	20	52.6
Limited English Proficiency (LEP)	6	15.8
Hearing impaired/deaf	22	57.9
Visually impaired/blind	21	55.3
Gifted	8	21.1
Speech impaired	15	39.5
Multihandicapped	21	55.3
Academically disadvantaged	5	13.2
Economically disadvantaged	5	13.2

Note: n* = frequency of response

Table 3. Frequency and Percent of Respondents Reporting Required and Desired Teacher Competencies

Question: Read the list of competencies below. If the competency is required for special education teachers in your state, put a check in Column A; if you think this is a competency that should be required, place a check in Column B.

REQUIRED A		DESIRED B		
n*	Percent	n	Percent	
2	5.3	7	18.4	Operation and management of activity centers (socialization & recreation)
1	2.6	7	18.4	Operation and management of adult day care centers
1	2.6	7	18.4	Operation and management of sheltered workshops (rehabilitation workshops, work training centers, occupational centers)
2	5.3	17	44.7	Operation and management of JTPA programs
2	5.3	14	36.8	Operation and maintenance of enclaves
2	5.3	22	57.9	Development and management of job support networks
2	5.3	9	23.7	Knowledge of rules and regulations for nursing homes
2	5.3	14	36.8	Knowledge of rules and regulations for group homes
1	2.6	16	42.1	Knowledge of rules and regulations for dealing with foster care/family care homes
21	56.3	19	50.0	Knowledge of rules and regulations, Sec. 504, PL 94-142, and other State and Federal laws related to transition services
1	2.6	8	21.1	Development and management of half-way houses
2	5.3	15	39.5	Development and management of independent living networks
8	21.1	20	52.6	Knowledge of employment development procedures for clients at all levels
19	50.0	17	44.7	Knowledge of independent living skills
7	18.4	28	73.7	Knowledge of job coaching (at a variety of levels)
3	7.9	19	50.0	Knowledge of contracts and grants procedures/acquisition
14	36.8	16	42.1	Development and management of school planning teams
8	21.1	19	50.0	Development and management community planning teams
27	71.1	15	39.5	Written and oral communication skills
16	42.1	20	52.6	Counseling skills
18	47.4	19	50.0	Knowledge of career/community assessment
10	26.3	24	63.2	Public relations skills
8	21.1	19	50.0	First aid and health maintenance skills
18	47.4	18	47.4	Awareness of cultural differences
25	65.8	14	36.8	Knowledge of human development
19	50.0	20	52.6	Skills in involving parents
8	21.1	26	68.4	Interagency coordination skills

Table 4. Recommended Skills and Knowledge for Integration Into Special Education Training

Skills*
Development and management of job support networks
Development and management of community planning teams
Counseling skills
Public relations skills
First aid and health maintenance skills
Skills involving parents
Interagency coordination skills

Knowledges*
Knowledge of rules and regulations, Sec. 504, PL 94-142, and other state and federal laws related to transition services
Knowledge of employment development procedures for clients at all levels
Knowledge of job coaching (at a variety of levels)
Knowledge of contracts and grants procedures/acquisition of resources
Knowledge of career/community assessment

*Included if desired by 50% or more of respondents (19 is critical value)

Appendix A:

Exemplary Program Survey

TRANSITION PROGRAM SURVEY

Directions: Please read carefully and respond to each question.

1. Which of the following statements that applies to your transition program?
    - ___ a. Services are optional
    - ___ b. Services are available but not mandated for all special education students
    - ___ c. Services are mandated for all special education students (if so, check one)
        - ___ 1. Mandated by State Education Agency (SEA)
        - ___ 2. Mandated by Local Education Agency (LEA)
        - ___ 3. Mandated by a Regional Education Unit

2. Which of the following assessment techniques do you use to plan transition services (check all that are applicable)?
    - a. Informal instruments:
        - ___ Student surveys
        - ___ Parent surveys
        - ___ Teacher surveys
        - ___ Other: ______________________________
    - b. Standardized instruments:
        - ___ Career interest inventories
        - ___ Aptitude
        - ___ Achievement
        - ___ Intelligence
        - ___ Values/Maturity
        - ___ Other: ______________________

      Please list instruments:
      ____
      ____
      ____
      ____
      ____
      ____
    - c. Situational assessment:
        - ___ In-school work sites
        - ___ In-school vocational classes
        - ___ Community-based vocational sites
        - ___ Other: ______________________________
    - d. Other assessment information:
        - ___ Job skills needs assessment
        - ___ Medical
        - ___ Behavioral/Social
        - ___ Work samples
        - ___ Learning styles
        - ___ Movement/Dexterity Assessments
        - ___ Other: ______________________

3. Who is responsible for coordinating/administering your transition program?
    - ___ a. Transition coordinator
    - ___ b. Special education director
    - ___ c. Guidance personnel
    - ___ d. Work-study coordinator
    - ___ e. Classroom teacher
    - ___ f. JTPA coordinator
    - ___ g. Other: ______________________

4. Identify skills training included in program curriculum. For each one you check (check all that apply) indicate in which of following areas your program provides or arranges for the use of technology for your clients? Please list examples of the technology used, circle our examples if they apply. Use the blanks to provide other examples. Remember, list only those applications that you provide or arrange for, not ones the clients bring with them!
    - ___ Career awareness (slide tape programs, CAI, laser disc programs, interactive computer/laser disc [hyperstack] programs, audio tapes, videotape) ______________________
    - ___ Job seeking/keeping skills (slide tape programs, audio tapes, video tape, CAI, work station development) ______________________
    - ___ Independent living skills, such as money management, banking, budgeting, housing, taxes, etc. (simulations, CAI, slide tape/caremate, video tapes, interactive video disc) ______________________
    - ___ Personal living skills, such as hygiene, cooking, laundry, etc. (films, video tapes, interactive video disc, simulatio ______________________
    - ___ Social skills development (simulations, slide tapes, video, film) ______________________
    - ___ Transportation training (mock ups, simulators, video, interactive video, film) ______________________
    - ___ Recreation/leisure (video, film, interactive video) ______________________
    - ___ Organizational/problem solving skills development ______________________
    - ___ Self-advocacy (interactive video, video, film, simulations) ______________________

5. Which of the following do you have in your program and which of the following do you believe necessary for a transition program to be successful (check all that are appropriate)?

Have	Necessary	
___	___	a. Simulated vocational training in classroom
___	___	b. In-school job sites
___	___	c. Job-shadowing
___	___	d. Shared-time programs in Vo-Tech schools
___	___	e. Career internships
___	___	f. Work-study
___	___	g. JTPA, PIC
___	___	h. Adult service job training programs (ARC's, Easter Seals, Goodwill)
___	___	i. Technological assistive devices (please list): ____________ ____________ ____________ ____________

6. Which of the following outcomes are part of your transition program and which do you believe are necessary for a transition program to be successful (check all that apply)?

Part of our program	Necessary for success	
		a. Employment outcomes:
___	___	1. competitive
___	___	2. supported
___	___	3. semi-independent
___	___	4. sheltered
		b. Independent living/habilitation outcomes:
___	___	1. independent living
___	___	2. supported independent living
___	___	3. half-way house
___	___	4. boarding house
___	___	5. group house
___	___	6. institutional care
		c. Contact or access outcomes:
___	___	1. rehabilitative services
___	___	2. medical
___	___	3. dental
___	___	4. counseling
___	___	5. therapy
___	___	6. interface with agencies
___	___	7. transportation
___	___	8. funding, food stamps, etc.

7. At what age do you begin transition services for students and at what age do you end?
Beginning age: ______ years old
Ending age: ______ years old

8. For which of the following groups of students do you provide transition services (check all that are appropriate)?

___ a. Educational Mentally Retarded
___ b. Trainable Mentally Retarded
___ c. Severely Mentally Retarded
___ d. Profoundly Mentally Retarded
___ e. Learning Disabled
___ f. Emotionally Disturbed
___ g. Behaviorally Disturbed
___ h. Limited English Proficiency
___ i. Hearing impaired/Deaf
___ j. Visually impaired/Blind
___ k. Gifted
___ l. Speech impaired
___ m. Multihandicapped
___ n. Economically disadvantaged
___ o. Academically disadvantaged
___ p. Other: ____________________

9. Does your local education agency have an interagency agreement with state and local service provider agencies?
___ a. no (if no, go to 14)
___ b. yes

10. If yes, what year was the agreement first made? ____________

11. How often are interagencies agreements renewed?

___ a. every semester
___ b. every year
___ c. not renewed, ongoing with indefinite termination date
___ d. other, please specify ________________

12. What agencies are participating in agreements:

___ a. rehabilitation services/vocational rehabilitation
___ b. developmental disabilities
___ c. child protective services
___ d. juvenile probation
___ e. Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) Office
___ f. Department of Human Services
___ g. Others: Please list ________________

13. How often do agencies meet with members of your program?

___ a. at least once a week
___ b. at least once a month
___ c. at least three times each semester
___ d. at least three times each year
___ e. once a year

14. Where does your transition program provide work experiences (check all that apply)?

___ a. in school
___ b. in the community
___ c. in a sheltered environment
___ d. in a rural setting, e.g., on a farm
e. Other, please list: ________________

15. Which of the following does your district develop for students in transition programs (check all that apply)?

___ a. individualized vocational education program/plan
___ b. individualized training program/plan
___ c. individualized habilitation program/plan
___ d. individualized education program/plan

16. If you develop formalized individualized programs, who develops them?

___ A special education consultant based on assessment data
___ A trained teacher
___ A psychologist
___ A rehabilitation specialist
___ A case manager
___ An administrator
___ A team composed of (fill in members): ________________

17. Of those students who work while in the transition program, what is the term of employment while still in school?

___ a. 0-3 months
___ b. 4-6 months
___ c. 7-9 months
___ d. 10-12 months
___ e. more than 12 months

18. For a student working in the school in your transition program, what type of paid jobs are available to him/her (check all tha are available)?

___ a. cafeteria
___ b. custodial
___ c. maintenance
___ d. teacher aide
___ e. secretarial/receptionist
___ f. other, please specify ________________

19. For a student working in your community, what types of paid employment are typically available to him/her (check all that available)?

___ a. fast food/restaurant
___ b. grocery/stocker
___ c. retail sales (clerk)
___ d. service station attendant
___ e. auto repair
___ f. delivery
___ g. janitorial
___ h. domestic
___ i. city government
___ j. county government
___ k. state government
___ l. other, please specify ________________

20. Are follow-up, or follow-along, services provided for transition students once they leave the public schools?
____ a. no ____ b. yes

21. Approximately what percentage of your special education student ages 15-21 drop out of school each year? ________%

22. Of the special education students who drop out of your school system each year, what percentage approximately are, or have been in, transition programs in the public school? ________%

23. What is the approximate overall yearly dropout rate from your district, in percent? ________%

24. a. Do you collect data on the outcomes of transition planning/services when the student is 1, 3, and/or 5 years out of the program?
____ a. no (if no, go to 25)
____ b. yes
b. If yes, what percentage of the following do you find?
____% 1. student employed at the appropriate level
____% 2. student living independently, if capable
____% 3. student socially independent at an appropriate level
____% 4. student employed, but at a lower than appropriate lev

25. How do you collect follow-up data on your graduates?
____ a. personal interview (client or parent)
____ b. telephone interview (client or parent)
____ c. questionnaire hand delivered (client or parent)
____ d. case worker interview
____ e. mail questionnaire (client or parent)
____ f. other (list) ____________________

26. Check each statement for which your transition program has data that would support the claim that:
____ a. transition programs increase long-term employability
____ b. transition programs reduce student dropout rates
____ c. transition programs increase the number of clients in independent living

27. What percentage of students receiving transition services in your district are employable without support upon graduation/leaving high school? ________%

28. What percentage of students receiving transition services in your district need further training and service provider agency assistance upon graduating or leaving school? ________%

29. What percentage of students receiving transition services in your district go on to post high school placement (if available)?
________%

30. What percentage of students receiving transition services in your district are employable without support when completing th transition program. ________%

Demographics

31. How many students are enrolled in your program? ________
32. How many of your students are enrolled in special education classes? ________
33. How many special education students in your district or area are eligible for transition services? ________

34. a. Is your program affiliated with a high school?
____ a. no (if no go to 35)
____ b. yes
b. If yes, which grades to you serve (check all that are appropriate)?
____ 7th
____ 8th
____ 9th
____ 10th
____ 11th
____ 12th

35. Where is your program located?
____ a. urban area (includes a town of 50,000 or over)
____ b. suburban area (adjacent to or within 5 miles of a town or city of 50,000 or more)
____ c. rural (does not include or is not adjacent to a town or city of 50,000 or more)

36. What is the socioeconomic level of the area you serve?
____ a. upper class
____ b. middle class
____ c. lower class

37. What percentage of your transition students are:

____	a. Black	____	c. Native American
____	b. Hispanic	____	d. Other Minority

38. Do minority students drop out of your transition program at a higher rate than do majority students?

____	a. no	____	b. yes

39. How is your program funded (check all that apply)?

____ LEA regular special education funds
____ SEA special program funds
____ Johnson-O'Malley funds
____ Vocational/technical school local funds
____ Vo-Tech state funds
____ Federal grant
____ Private (foundation) grant
____ Self-supporting (donations, earnings, and fees from clients/guardians)
____ Other: ________________________________

40. How much is your total yearly budget, approximately? ____________________

41. What is your average cost per client per year, approximately? ____________________

42. How many of the following staff positions do you have and at what percentage of time for each?

Number of Positions		Percentage of Time
____	Job coach	____
____	Rehab therapist	____
____	Teacher	____
____	Counselor	____
____	Secretary	____
____	Program director	____
____	Contracts officer	____
____	Psychometrist	____
____	Health-related service personnel	____
____	Others: ________________	____
	________________	____
	________________	____

Please return this survey in the enclosed self-addressed envelope or to Dr. Diane Montgomery, ACRES Transition Task Force, Department of Applied Behavioral Studies, 306 N. Murray Hall, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078.

Name of person completing this form: ________________________________

Position: ________________________________

Name of Exemplary Transition Program: ________________________________

Address: ________________________________
____
____

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Ann S. Considine
Co-Presenter: Linda P. Steck
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

IDENTIFICATION
OF
PRESCHOOL
HANDICAPPED

BY

ANN S. CONSIDINE, ED. D. 343
COASTAL GEORGIA LEARNING RESOURCES
SYSTEM

For assistance call
GEORGIA LEARNING RESOURCES SYSTEM
COASTAL AREA CENTER
Room 108, Victor Hall
Armstrong State College
Savannah, Georgia 31419-1997
912-927-5239

IDENTIFICATION OF PRESCHOOL HANDICAPPED

BY

ANN S. CONSIDINE, ED. D.
COASTAL GEORGIA LEARNING RESOURCES SYSTEM

A MANUAL OF SUGGESTED
PROCEDURES FOR DEVELOPING
AND IMPLEMENTING A CHILD
FIND PROJECT FOR PRESCHOOL
HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

Locating children in need of special education services as early as possible is a difficult matter and may be quite complicated. A child find project can be an overwhelming task for one agency. However, it becomes more manageable and effective when several agencies work to coordinate efforts. Services to children will be more effective if gaps and duplication of services can be avoided.

Screening is used to identify potential problems. It does not diagnose, but indicates a need for further evaluation. Screening is an effective means of locating children with potential special educational needs. The sooner a child with special needs is located and special services implemented, the greater the likelihood the child will develop his/her potential.

Finding children in need of special services through early intervention must be planned so that it becomes a self-sustaining process requiring minimum staff time. To develop a successful and effective process which does not overlook potentially eligible handicapped children, there must be a coordinated plan. Alotting adequate time for careful planning should result in an effective system.

PLANNING

PLANNING

1. Appoint project coordinator
2. Identify population to be screened
    - a) Four-year-olds
    - b) Three-year-olds
    - c) Three-and-four-year-olds
    - d) Birth-two-year-olds
3. Determine total number of preschool children in the area
4. Contact support groups
    - a) Schedule appointments and meetings with professional and volunteer organizations as well as selected individuals to solicit support and cooperation.
    - b) Schedule presentations at meetings of community groups.

      Examples:
        - Public Health Department
        - Department of Family and Children Services
        - Public Library
        - Parent Teacher Association
        - Civic Organizations
        - Volunteer Groups
5. Define committee responsibilities
6. Select planning committee
    - a) Representation needed from various interest groups

b) Contact prospective members
    1. Explain project
    2. Explain specific role
    3. Invite to become a committee member
c) Send confirming letter to each member

7. Identify tasks that require

    a) Money
    b) Manpower
    c) Money and manpower

8. Determine personnel requirements for each screening station

    Example:

        Teachers
        Nurses
        Audiologists
        Physical Therapist
        Occupational Therapist
        Speech Therapist
        School Psychologist
        LEA Administrators
        Regional Education Personnel
        Clerical Worker
        Parents
        Other Agencies
        Other

9. Define Screening Responsibilities for Selected Personnel

    Example:

        Teachers
            Cognitive
            Concepts

        Nurses
            Vision testing
            Hearing testing

        Audiologist
            Hearing testing

        Physical Therapist
            Gross motor skills
            Fine motor skills

Occupational Therapist
    Gross motor skills
    Fine motor skills

Speech Therapist
    Language skills
    Communication skills

School Psychologist
    Interpretation of screening results

LEA Administrator
    Parent conference
    Parent project evaluation
    Assist where needed
    Advise parent of referral process if needed

Volunteers
    Greet parents
    Registration
    Assist where needed
    Orientation of parents

Clerical Workers
    Compile all forms
    Registration

All screening participants should have access to and practice/review all screening instruments and forms prior to the screening dates.

All personnel conducting any evaluatin should verify parent has signed the "Permission to Test" form before beginning.

10. Determine screening process

a) Review screening instruments
    *Examples
    1. ABC Inventory readiness Test
    2. Brigance Diagnostic Inventory of Early Development
    3. Developmental Indicators for the Assessment of Learning (DIAL)
    4. DIAL - Revised
    5. Other

- b) Select screening instrument
- - *Screening instruments listed as suggestions only and are not to be interpreted as an emdprsement of any kind.
- c) Information from other sources/parents

11. Determine budget requirements

    - a) Screening instrument
    - b) Produce forms
        1. Permission to test
        2. Parent questionaire
        3. Registration forms
        4. Referral forms
        5. release of information forms
        6. Summary/Evaluation forms
        7. Media release forms
    - c) Printing
        1. Brochures
        2. Posters
        3. Flyers
    - d) Typing and copying
    - e) Transportation
    - f) Film purchase and development
    - g) Dissemination plan

12. Submit budget

13. Develop timelines for completion of tasks

14. Evaluate activities

15. Revise as necessary

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: David Noble Stockford
Co-Presenter: Kathleen Powers
Barbara Keefe
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 4:00pm - 5:00pm

Prepared for ACRES/NRSSC
Symposium, March 17-20, 1991

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MAINE CITE: TECHNOLOGY COLLABORATION THROUGH DISTANCE LEARNING

Overview

The Maine Consumer Information and Technology Training Exchange (Maine CITE) is a three-year project supported by the Maine Department of Education, Division of Special Education with a federal grant from the National Institute on Disability and Rehabilitation Research, U.S. Department of Education. Maine CITE is designed to increase the availability and use of assistive technology to Maine people with disabilities. It serves people of all ages and crosses disabilities. This paper will focus on the effective use of programming delivered by using the University of Maine's interactive television system with a school-age population.

The presentation will also describe the process of team building and technology collaboration that happens when broadcast programs are put together for using this delivery model.

Maine is the largest of the New England states with the lowest density of population east of the Mississippi River. Nearly 1.2 million people live in Maine, 70 percent of whom live in rural communities of less that 10,000 people. The Department of Education reports 27,074 children with disabilities among

Maine's school-age population, ages 5-20. The Bureau of Rehabilitation estimates 63,655 adults, age 22 years and above, (approximately 10% of the adult population), have a disability limiting a major life activity. In some remote areas of Maine telecommunications is the only means of delivering scarcely available courses and workshops to students, parents, professionals and parents.

Maine's Interactive Television System

The Maine CITE project works cooperatively with the University of Maine at Augusta's staff to help produce its programs over the interactive television system.

Maine's interactive television (ITV) is the most comprehensive terrestrial system in the country. A two-way audio and visual fiberoptic spine, leased from New England Telephone, connects electronic classrooms located at each of the University of Maine System campuses. From each campus, the classroom signal is broadcast via point-to-point microwave to an ITFS microwave transmitter onto multiple receive antennae at the various receive sites. Distances as great as 400 miles might separate presenters, facilitators, and participants. Because the signal can be transmitted from each campus throughout its own geographical region or throughout the entire state, the ITV system proves efficient and cost effective.

People at remote ITV classrooms are connected to presenters who are simultaneously presenting to a "live" classroom of people on campus. In this electronic classroom one camera focuses on the presenters, while another scans other visual material. The presenters and visual images are electronically "transmitted" to the remote sites where the participants can see and hear the presenters on television monitors. An audio talk-back system permits people in these distant locations to interact with the presenters and with other participants.

ITV technology links these people, generating an interaction allowing persons with low incidence disabilities to probe participants across the state immediately for ideas and answers that might not have been available in their area, increasing the amount of receivable information.

Prerequisite to System Use

Seventy-seven sites are capable of receiving programs statewide over the University's comprehensive ITV system. Maine CITE uses only nine of the ITV sites. The nine sites are video and audio interactive, meaning all participants can see and hear one another. In general, the criteria for selecting the sites has been "complete access" according to the ANSI standard for buildings. Maine CITE uses only locations meeting those standards. We are currently developing a comprehensive plan to assist other sites in meeting access requirements.

Educational access was another driving principle for training. All Maine CITE programs are captioned for people who are hearing impaired and are available in audio and videotape free of charge through the Maine State Library. Interpreters are secured for anyone requesting one at their site.

Program Planning

All Maine CITE broadcasts adhere to the following guidelines. We consider users of assistive technology the "experts"; their expertise is called upon for each program. Programs are developed and presented in collaboration with one or more organizations. Print materials that are needed for the actual program are mailed to the various facilitators statewide one week prior to the program broadcast. Information is available in large print, braille, or audiotape.

Facilitators are used at all ITV receive sites. People with disabilities or parents of children with disabilities again are the preferred facilitators.

Original videotapes are developed for most live ITV programs, and are either aired later on cable stations or shown internally in organizations. These videos help us reach thousands of people with specific disability issues as well as the general public.

Collaboration

Three of Maine CITE's programs were done in collaboration with the Maine Parent Federation/Special-needs Parent Information

Network (SPIN): "Kid To Kid I and II," which focus on technology; and "Toy and Recreation Fair." These programs allowed parents and children to become familiar with the Interactive Television System and its use. The experience proved to have mutual benefit. Although it is hard to evaluate a collaborator's appreciation for the ITV as a new delivery model, it is important to note that the Maine Parent Federation/SPIN has budgeted $1000 for use of the System in the coming year.

Collaborators plan agendas, design program formats, identify target audiences and supply some of the material that is distributed in information packets the day of the program. Collaborators are not just participants in the planning process; people with disabilities, parents and professionals are partners in the presentation of the information as well.

Planning meetings are held over the ITV system when program presenters are geographically dispersed. Program presenters might be separated by distances ranging from two hundred to four hundred miles.

Because Maine CITE uses the interactive television system, the power of the technology to link people and generate interaction emerges during the question and answer period of each program. A consumer in Machias might be asked a question by a person in Farmington, (a three-hour drive away). The person in Farmington might refer the question to a person in Presque Isle, (a seven-hour drive away).

The electronic classroom connects people from the isolated, northern farmlands of Aroostook County to the tiny islands off the coast of Maine.

Summary

Maine CITE and its partners are excited about the emerging potential of ITV and other technologies to reach individuals who might otherwise have no access to information and services. Overwhelmingly, participants found the ITV model to be an effective delivery mechanism for accessing new information.

Approximately 1400 people participated in the ten programs presented by Maine CITE in its first year. The following matrix represents the kinds of programs developed for various audiences.

Maine CITE
Interactive Television Programs

PROGRAM	TOPIC	VIDEOS PRODUCED	AUDIENCE	COLLABORATORS
2/14/90 KID TO KID I	Demonstration of children using augmentative communication devices	An interview with Larry Harvey	Children, parents, teachers: occupational therapists, speech/language pathologists	Parents, Maine Parent Federation & SPIN
2/27/90 KID TO KID II	Demonstration of children using assistive devices	An interview with Larry Harvey	SAME AS ABOVE	SAME AS ABOVE
3/30/90 OPENING THE DOOR	A forum on barrier-free environment	An access tour of Augusta City Hall with Ron Hanson	Architects, code enforcement officers, University facility managers and people with disabilities	Alpha One, Center for Independent Living
4/27/90 ENGINEERING FOR DISABILITIES	Demonstration of adaptations	---	People with disabilities occupational and physical therapists, engineers and inventors, vocational rehabilitation and independent living counselors	Department of Human Services, Bureau of Rehabilitation
6/29/90 IN THE DRIVER'S SEAT	Driver assessment and education program for people with disabilities	Alpha One Driver Assessment and Ecucation Program	People with disabilities, vocational rehabilitation and independent living counselors, driver education teachers, occupational and physical therapists	Alpha One, Center for Independent Living
9/15/90 TECHNOLOGY SOLUTIONS	Statewide discussion among people who use assistive technology, telling of adaptations they find useful	From the kitchen of Leigh Phillips	People with disabilities, vocational rehabilitation and Independent Living counselors, parents	Maine Independent Living Services, Department of Human Services, Bureau of Rehabilitation
10/27/90 TOY AND RECREATION FAIR	Demonstration of various adapted toys and recreational devices	Ricky and his dad play Nintendo, Muppet Keyboard, Carl's Great Bike	Parents, children with disabilities, special education teachers, occupational and physical therapists	Maine Parent Federation/SPIN
12/14/90 ASSISTIVE TECH FOR PEOPLE WHO ARE DEAF AND HARD OF HEARING	Demonstration of old and new assistive technology and services	Assistive Communications Lab at Gov. Baxter School	People with hearing impairements, teachers, vocational rehabilitation counselors	Gov. Baxter School for the Deaf, Bureau of Rehabilitation
1/11/91 COMPUTER ASSISTIVE TECHNOLOGY FOR THE BLIND & VISUALLY IMPAIRED	A panel of consumers discussing different output modes	Tour of the Computer Assistive Technology Center at Maine Center for the Blind, Peter Slowkowski at UMLM. Returning to School: Vernon Peacock	People who are blind and visually impaired, employers, vocational rehabilitation and Independent Living counselors	Division of the Blind and Visual Impairment Maine Center for the Blind and Visually Impaired, National Federation of the Blind of Maine, American Council of the Blind of Maine
Planning for assistive technology conference consumer forum	Content planning for 1991 technology conference	---	People with disabilities	MILS, Alpha One, MADSEC, SPIN, Division of the Blind and Visually Impaired

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Debra L. McIntosh
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 4:00pm - 5:00pm

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IMPROVING SERVICE TO STUDENTS WITH LOW INCIDENCE HANDICAPS THROUGH ON-GOING MULTIDISCIPLINARY STAFF DEVELOPMENT

In rural areas, schools frequently find it difficult to meet the challenge of providing quality educational programs for students who have low incidence handicapping conditions. School personnel typically have limited training and experience with which to understand and meet the needs of these students. Teachers of "low incidence" children are usually separated from each other by significant distance and have minimal opportunity to network with each other. The responsibility for acquiring skills necessary to meet a child's needs typically falls on one teacher and information does not usually filter to the rest of the school staff.

A staff development model is presented that was designed and implemented to address training and professional support needs in a rural section of Eastern Oregon. The model was developed out of a specific need to improve service to students who have autism and this population will therefore provide the example for this presentation. The model can, however, be applied to any handicapping condition.

The Setting

Umatilla County is located in rural Northeastern Oregon. Twelve school districts, serving a total of approximately 11,000 students, receive specialized educational support services (e.g. child development/school psychology, speech and language, vision, physical and occupational therapy, mental retardation/developmental disabilities) through Umatilla Education Service District. The Education Service District (ESD) office is located in Pendleton, which is centrally located to the rest of the county. In addition, Oregon provides specialized consultative services to students who have low incidence handicapping conditions (e.g. autism, hearing impaired, visually impaired) through six regional programs. The regional program that provides service to Umatilla County is housed in La Grande, Oregon, which is approximately 60 miles from Pendleton, on the east side of the Blue Mountains.

Austism Services in Umatilla County Prior to 1989

Prior to the 1988-89 school year, there were, on average, three students with autism who were being educated in the Umatilla County schools. The twelve local districts had established a consortium to help financially support the needs of autistic students in the county. The consortium funds, used to hire classroom assistants to implement the IEP, were managed through the ESD Special Education Program. I, as Coordinator of the Child Development/School Psychology program (one of several ESD Special Education programs), provided the supervision for these assistants. Consultative services, which included training and support, were provided to each child's teacher, classroom assistant (if there was one), and parents by the regional autism specialist at least one time each month. It should be noted that this specialist covered four other counties in addition to Umatilla County.

During the 1988-89 school year, the number of autistic students in Umatilla County increased from five to six, a trend that was to continue. The six students resided in the county's three most populous areas: Pendleton, Milton-Freewater, and Hermiston. Three classroom assistants were needed to support the educational programs of these students. Training continued to be provided to teachers and assistants during consultation visits from the regional autism specialist. This very slight increase in the number of autistic students began to stress a service delivery model already short on resources. To illustrate, the regional autism specialist had to drive for almost two hours to get to any of the schools outside the Pendleton area. In addition, the number of students in mainstream settings with classroom assistants had increased and more consultation time was required to support these placements.

By the end of the 1988-89 school year, it had become obvious that the current service delivery model was no longer meeting the needs of teachers and students. The number of teachers and classroom assistants involved with autistic students had increased to the point that it was impractical to expect the regional autism specialist to continue to be able to provide adequate training and support for staff while problem-solving difficulties that arose in various student programs. Principals were asking for additional help. Teachers and classroom assistants were expressing frustration, feelings of isolation, and the urgent need for additional information and training. It was clear that a more collaborative relationship between regional, ESD, and local district personnel would be required if these needs were to be addressed.

Research Regarding Effective Staff Development Programs

Research indicates that effective staff development programs "reflect the needs of participants over time and provide for continuous growth and learning" (Hinson, Caldwell, Landrum, 1989, p. 48). Training that is presented in small "chunks" over time allows the participants to build on their experiences and cumulative learning. Duttweiler (1989) suggests that staff development that is planned and organized around a central theme is more effective than "one-shot" seminars because it allows participants to progress through the awareness phase of learning to in-depth exposure, which can then be integrated into practice. King (1988) reports that in rural settings it is particularly important that staff development is collaborative and internal; building on the strengths and capabilities of the teachers and focusing on school-based teams.

Development of an On-going, Multidisciplinary Staff Development Model

Using the research on effective staff development practices and the needs expressed by school personnel as a guide, Janet Todd, who was the new regional autism specialist serving Umatilla County, and I evaluated the existing autism service delivery model. We identified two major components that had become particularly problematic. More specifically, we noted that staff training was reactive and accomplished on an individual basis in response to a problem.

There was no real opportunity to provide proactive training. Furthermore, the regional autism specialist had become the main source of support for school-based staff. It was difficult for other building staff to provide the kind of support needed by these teachers because they did not fully understand the complexity of instructing an autistic child. Significant distances between districts similarly isolated teachers of autistic students.

Janet and I decided to utilize the format of a monthly professional meeting to address training, support, and networking needs. The meeting was designed to be multidisciplinary so as to promote team-building at the school level and networking at the county level. We settled on a one-hour monthly meeting because this would afford sufficient opportunity for on-going training, problem-solving, and networking without imposing a time burden on staff. Janet would continue to consult with each student's teachers but her emphasis would now be on helping the building-level team implement the information from the professional meetings and engage in team problem-solving.

We began the 1989-90 school year with a revised service delivery model and eight autistic students in the county. These students were in the same three cities but were now spread across six different classrooms in five different schools. Six classroom assistants were required to support the educational programs of all eight students. The students, who ranged from kindergarten to junior high, were a very diverse group. Some students were operating at a level which enabled them to function in a regular classroom setting with the support of a classroom assistant. Others needed the structure and predictability of a self-contained classroom, as well as the support of a classroom assistant. The concerns that had been expressed regarding consultation, training, and support were even stronger as the new school year commenced. School district principals strongly supported implementation of the new model.

The Monthly Professional Meetings

The staff members involved with each autistic student's program were invited to the monthly professional meeting. Staff members included the following individuals, depending on the student's placement: principal, special education teacher, regular classroom teacher(s), classroom assistant, speech and language clinician, school psychologist, counselor. Janet and I served as trainers and group facilitators during the meetings. The agenda for each meeting allowed time for dissemination of new information as well as discussion of successes and challenges being faced. The meetings also provided the opportunity for staff to learn about other autistic students in the county and thereby gain perspective on their own student. Teachers of younger children increased their understanding of the challenges facing older autistic students, which enabled them to anticipate possible difficulties at various developmental stages and plan proactive programs.

As suggested by staff development research, the topics presented at the monthly meetings focused on autism and were structured so as to facilitate cumulative learning. The first part of the year was spent establishing a solid understanding of autism. The initial meeting presented an overview of autism and subsequent meetings addressed specific topics within this overview, e.g. communication, behavior, learning characteristics. Staff members were encouraged to share observations of their students which illustrated the information being discussed. Once the basic principals were understood, specific strategies were introduced to help teachers further increase their instructional effectiveness. Topics included: functional analysis of behavior, structured teaching, proactive and reactive behavior management strategies, and relaxation training (for both students and staff). A portion of Janet's consultation time was spent in the classrooms helping the teachers implement the appropriate strategies, thereby facilitating integration of new information into daily practice.

We periodically solicited feedback from participants in order to ensure that the professional meetings were addressing staff needs. This was accomplished using both discusssion and written formats. The response we received throughout the year indicated that teachers found the information extremely helpful, particularly because Janet was available to help them implement technical strategies in their classrooms. Staff members also indicated that the support and networking opportunities were invaluable. They reported that the networking and team-building that took place during the professional meetings enabled them to function as a team back in their schools. Teachers received more support and felt empowered to meet the needs of these students. They also began to share information about autism with other staff members at their schools. At the end of the school year many stated that they felt it had been the most successful year they had experienced. Teachers further reported that several parents had made similar comments about the growth they had witnessed in their children. The request was made that the meetings resume at the beginning of the next school year.

Essential Components of the Staff Development Model

As the year progressed, Janet and I realized that the success of the professional meetings could be attributed to several key factors.

1) The information was presented in manageable amounts, with opportunities for discussion and follow-up. Janet facilitated implementation of new strategies by being available to help teachers in the classroom.

2) Janet and I complimented each other in terms of training, experience, and organizational style. Janet has a strong teaching background in special education, particularly in the area of autism and severe disabilities. Her organizational style is linear, task oriented, and planned. I have a strong background in school psychology and regular and special education. My organizational style tends to be holistic, process oriented, and fluid. We discovered that in addition to having acquired expert knowledge, it is essential that staff development facilitators possess the skills to facilitate group process. The participants in our professional meetings learned to trust each other and share difficulties as well as successes. Janet and I found that together we were able to model collaboration, provide information, and facilitate open communication in the meetings. We believe that it would be difficult for one facilitator to accomplish this alone.

3) Staff members recognized that the professional meetings provided the opportunity to obtain valuable information and support. They also realized that they played a vital role in the success of the meetings. This group of professionals actively engaged in discussions, maintained the dynamic nature of the meetings, and provided feedback and direction regarding their needs.

4) Janet and I faithfully maintained the meeting schedule. We started promptly and ended on time. There was always the opportunity to stay and visit but staff knew the formal meeting would last exactly one hour. This was extremely important because the meetings were held after school in Pendleton and most staff members had to drive a minimum of one half hour in order to attend.

Current Status and Future Direction

There are currently fourteen autistic students in Umatilla County and the number continues to increase. Students now range from early intervention to high school. The consortium established by the local school districts continues to provide funds for the eight classroom assistants needed to work with these students. The service delivery model implemented during the 1989-90 school year is still in effect. Professional meetings are held each month and attendance continues to be high. Janet has been able to increase the amount of time she spends in Umatilla County because of the significant student increase. She continues to help teachers implement and refine effective teaching practices and promotes team problem-solving when difficulties arise.

The first autism meeting of the 1990-91 school year posed a challenge to Janet and I. The professional group now includes extremely knowledgable staff as well as those who are completely new to autism. We therefore made the decision to draw upon the knowledge and experience of the staff from last year when providing fundamental information to new members. We now promote structured discussions around a topic rather than providing a "lecture." This format is meeting with approval from both new and experienced staff. Networking and support continues to be a valued component of the monthly meetings.

The current staff development model provided the means to address a need that became apparent during the 1989-90 school year. Trained substitutes were not available for the autism classroom assistants. Using some of the materials developed for the professional meetings at the beginning of last year, the ESD provided training for a number of substitute assistants. Several of these individuals now voluntarily attend the monthly meetings in order to network with the assistants for whom they substitute and to increase their knowledge and skills.

Needs will continue to be identified and staff will continue to change. We have found, however, that on-going, collaborative, multidisciplinary staff development provides the tools and support needed to develop and maintain quality programs for autistic students. We believe the model can be applied to other "low incidence" children.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Wilfred D. Wienke
Co-Presenter: Merith Cosden
Day: March 19, 1991
Time: 4:00pm - 5:00pm

Wilfred D. Wienke
West Virginia University

Merith A. Cosden
University of California, Santa Barbara

Carmen J. Iannaccone
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Social Skills Instruction in Rural Schools: Factors Effecting Implementation

Introduction

There is much concern about the way in which social skills instruction is approached within secondary education (Kain, Downs and Black, 1988; Gerler, 1986; Cartledge and Milburn, 1980). Social skills deficits are viewed as contributing factors to the vast social problems of youth in our country. Violent crime, racial and ethnic discrimination, post high school unemployment , teenage pregnancy, teenage suicide, substance abuse and general social maladaptation contribute to a nationwide concern for our youth (Gates, 1988; Orr, 1987; Soderberg, 1988). It is agreed that skills critical to the proper social adjustment are not sufficiently developed for many of our nation's youth (Lecroy, 1983). Many of our schools have concentrated on efforts to enhance performance in traditional academic subjects by implementing competency requirements. There have also been efforts at curriculum and materials development (Walker, 1983). But there is little data which indicates that comprehensive social skills curriculum are being implemented. In fact, very little effort has been provided systematically to improve the area of social skills functioning in our schools. This is apparent in our rural schools as well as non-rural schools.

This paper focuses on a description of factors which have been found to effect the implementation of social skills instruction in a selected rural secondary school setting. The purpose of this study was to begin to gather data on the existing capacity to provide social skills instruction, and to begin to assess factors which might have positive potential for improving social skills instruction for students with learning and behavioral disabilities in our rural schools.

Method

Subjects

Twenty-eight teachers from a multi-ethnic, rural, southwestern high school voluntarily responded to a questionnaire designed by the authors. Twenty-two of the teachers were part of the regular education faculty, and had teaching experience ranging from 1 to 26 years with an average of 12.8 years. Five respondents were special educators, and had teaching experience ranging from 1 to 13 years with an average of 6.0 years. All respondents taught at the same school location.

Instrumentation

The instrument was developed with items in multiple choice, multiple selection, and Likert scale formats. It assessed the respondents' current and ideal levels of involvement with social skills curriculum and instruction, and the resources, skills, and values that influenced their activities.

Respondents were asked to indicate their highest current level of social skills activity by selecting one of a series of options that described their best efforts in this area. Items were scaled on the basis of the implied level of engagement with social skills instruction. On one end of the continuum, alternatives reflected proactive approaches to social skills instruction; that is, social skills instruction that was implemented as part of the standard program. The other end of the scale reflected more reactive options of teacher behavior, as in response to emergency classroom situations. Additionally, items were scaled to reflect the comprehensiveness with which social skills instruction was presented within the curriculum. In addition to current level of social skill activity, teachers were asked to select one of the options to describe their ideal level of social skill activity.

The instrument also assessed the resources available to teachers, their knowledge and skills regarding social skills instruction, and the values they attributed to this instruction. Teachers responded to these factors by indicating whether each enhanced, inhibited, or had no effect on their current social skills activities. Lastly, respondent perceptions of responsibilities for social skills instruction to meet the needs of handicapped students in rural mainstream settings were ascertained.

RESULTS

1. Respondents reported a desire to be more engaged in proactive, comprehensive social skills activities than they were in their current situation .

2. Respopndents who wanted to be engaged in more proactive types of social skills activities were fairly evenly split between wanting to conduct social skills instruction as a discrete content area (46%) and wanting to integrate social skills instruction within other content areas (50%).

3. Interestingly, three of the five special education teachers indicated that their current social skills activities were primarily reactive(either in-class crisis intervention or referral for outside resources); nine mainstream teachers also reported primarily a reactive approach to social skills needs .

4. Respondents reported little access to resources that could support social skills instruction. A majority of respondents (60.71%) stated that no resources were available to them; this included 2 special education and 15 regular education teachers.

5. None of the teachers reported receiving assistance through inservice training or release time.

6. Differences were found between special and regular educator ratings of the importance of competencies for planning social skills instruction, with special educators placing a higher value on social skills planning and provision of instruction.

7. Respondent ratings of the importance of knowledge and competencies related to social skills instruction were higher than their ratings of the current level of knowledge and skills.

8. Factors indicated as contributing the most to teacher competency development in social skill instruction were a) direct experience, and b) family background.

Benefits of Social Skill Instruction

Teachers were asked to identify benefits associated with social skills instruction. Statistical differences were not found between regular and special educators . All respondents perceived benefits resulted from social skills instruction. Percieved positive effects were reported in student-teacher relationships, student-peer relationships, enhanced self-concept for the students themselves, and improvements in the social climate of the school.

Factors Influencing Social Skills Activities

A vast majority of the respondents indicated that neither school policies , instructional resources,nor preservice training had very much impact on their current levels of activities in providing social skill instruction. They did however report that personal philosophy had the greatest positive impact on their current social skills instruction activities.

Responsibility For Social Skills Instruction

Respondents were asked to indicate who they felt should be responsible for social skills instruction, specifically for students with learning and behavioral disabilities in the mainstream. A majority of teachers felt that the responsibility should be shared by both regular and special educators. Regular education teachers did vary in their responses about maintaining sole responsibility for social skills instruction or delegating it to special education. One special education teacher indicated that this instruction should not be the primary responsibility of either group of teachers.

DISCUSSION

Teachers in this study were aware of the dimensions of social skills problems that students experienced both within the rural secondary school and community setting. Furthermore, they were aware of the potential positive impact social skills instruction might have on their students both within school and in the community. They prefered positive, proactive approaches to social skills development as opposed to reactive responses to problems that occur in the school setting. The teachers at this school prefered to be more involved in the social skills needs of their students than was evident in their existing instructional programs.

Teachers in this study expressed a lack of agreement with respect to the desired curricular configuration for implementation of social skills instruction. They were divided as to whether it should be offered as a a discrete content area or integrated with other content areas. In addition to a need for further study to help determine best practices in this area, this perhaps indicates a need for consideration of both types of delivery systems within teacher training programs that are currently attempting to meet teachers' needs in this area. This might include: knowledge and skills in assessing social skills, planning social skills instruction, providing social skills instruction, evaluating student acquisition of social skills, and communicating with professionals and parents.

Resources to support social skills instruction were found to be lacking. While a range of instructional materials are available on the market, only one fifth of the teachers in this study reported that they had printed material to support social skills instruction. Perhaps teachers need assistance in locating materials which are appropriate for their programs and which are available to them.

Lack of inservice training and release time for planning social skills instruction characterized the experience of these teachers. This may be a reflection of the level of school commitment to social skills instruction.

Teachers indicated that their family background and direct experiences as educators had been the most helpful in developing their skills in support of social skills instruction. In addition to identifying a lack of formal training opportunities currently available to teachers, data suggest a need to consider and hopefully incorporate direct experience with social skills instruction into teacher trainees' courses of study.

Teachers perceived social skills instruction as beneficial, both for enhancing the self-concept of students and for improving their social relationships in the school and in the community. A majority of teachers felt that social skills instruction should be the shared responsibility of both special educators and regular educators. A few teachers did not perceive that social skills instruction was within their purview. This indicates a need to clarify the role of the teacher as well as to address the importance of social skills development as part of our teacher preparation programs in both special and regular education.

Implications

This study was conducted on a very limited rural population, and therefore the rersults may not generalize to other rural settings. However, our limited data suggest consideration of the following recommendations for professionals engaged in rural, secondary level programs in special and regular education.

Preservice and inservice programs should consider instruction in the foundations of social skills and curriculum development; the curriculum could include areas such as the assessment of social skills, instructional planning, program implementation, and materials development.

Teacher preparation programs in both special education and regular education should include early and frequent experiences for pre-service students to observe and participate in the formulation, implementation, and evaluation of social skills instruction in a variety of school and community settings.

Both regular education and special education teachers should be skilled in facilitating change in the school curriculum to more visibly and forcefully reflect the importance of social skill development for all students. It is suggested that a proactive approach to social skills instruction and development will better prepare students to perform within the classroom as well as when they face the challenges of life once they leave the formal school setting.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Judy K. Montgomery
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

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Alternative Service Delivery by Speech Language Hearing Professionals in Rural Schools: Classroom Based Interventions

Abstract: This presentation unites the latest research on collaboration/consultation models in service delivery with state of the art techniques and strategies for speech language and hearing professionals serving children with communication disorders. Speech language pathologists (SLP) are vital support personnel for the rural education system and often serve children with diverse communication needs. This session will address the role that the SLP plays in whole class instruction, increasing student literacy, and improving communication skills and overall academic performance.

"There is a revolution going on in special education." (Hoskins, 1990). It is a revolution of attitudes, expected outcomes, and finally service delivery. The speech language pathologist in rural schools is an integral part of the sweeping changes in both regular and special education moving across this nation. Since the publication of the Carnegie Commission's Education Report, A Nation At Risk, the citizens, the geopolitical system, and the education community has been seriously studying our approach to educating our most valuable resource, our children. A few years later, "Shared Responsibility", a controversial paper by then undersecretary of education Madeline Will challenged all of us in special education to explain why, after over a decade of federal law guaranteeing a free appropriate education for every child with special needs in this country, we were still unable to return large numbers of children to regular education. In fact, since public law 94-142 in 1975, it appeared we had "located and labeled" many more mildly handicapped children than ever before. These were children "pulled out" from the regular curriculum to receive "special services" that did not, in large measure, reverse their learning problems and permit them to rejoin their classmates in regular education.

Soon a new challenge was issued with a totally new focus and a startling call for action-- The Regular Education Initiative (REI). Dr. Will's document proposed the re-joining of regular and special education to assure that *all children* had equal access to the core curriculum, and the best chance to become a part of the mainstream of society.

Business and manufacturing leaders began to sense the shrinking pool of potential workers after the baby boom generation and its corresponding "boomlet". With a general workforce shortage for the 90's predicted, students today are acutely needed as the workers of tomorrow (Jarrett, 1989). Mildly handicapped children need to complete school in as normal a manner as possible and trained further by employers to assume the hundreds of thousands of jobs available in this country in manufacturing, skilled and unskilled labor, personal services, food production, farming, transportation, and office support.

"As regular education undergoes a reform that is being played out in every newspaper. special education is being asked to launch a similar reform in such areas as personal accountability, authentic assessment, active learning, functionally based outcomes, and literacy. Each discipline within special education is currently looking inward at its own body of knowledge and traditional service delivery to see what can be updated, modified, altered, or cast aside to allow room for a re-joining of all of the curriculum and all of our kids." (Montgomery, 1990).

One of the hallmarks of this re-joining process has been the development of new ways to deliver services to children with communication disorders, One of these is referred to as the consultation/collaboration model . In this model, SLPs assess children for language and speech disorders using traditional diagnostic tests and by observing their interaction in the classroom. Services to these children are planned around the curricular expectancies of that child's grade level and classroom. Content from the classroom is used for the basis of therapy, and the change in performance is measured by the clinician and the teacher. The school based SLP will provide collaborative services by "purposefully embedding child-initiated, needs based language into the child's world including the curricular environment, and the natural environments of home, school, and community. To accomplish this integration professionals will collaborate and consult." (Reid, 1990). SLP's must meet with teachers to learn the curriculum and expectancies of the classroom (consultation), to share the identified needs of the child (consultation), and to jointly arrive at a series of activities to make that child more successful in the classroom (collaboration). We have learned over the years that neither the teacher, nor the specialist , working alone with the communication disordered child can assure academic success. If the teacher alone could do it, there would be no need to refer children for additional services; if the specialist alone could do it , carryover to the classroom would be a common occurrence, instead of the child's usual struggle to generalize the new learning.

Possibly, the most exciting aspect of the new consultation/collaboration model of service delivery to speech language impaired children, is its emergence from within the profession of speech language pathology itself. Although the early impetus for change came from regular education (which responded to the public outcry for reform), the development of the SLP models for therapeutic intervention are coming from school based practitioners themselves (Bardzik, 1990; Eger, 1990; Fischer, 1989; Hoffman, 1990; Montgomery, 1990; Moore-Brown, 1989; Welsh, 1990). We are designing our own consultation/collaboration models, based on our own field's principles of remediation and communication development theory.

There are many compelling justifications for this new model in both urban and rural settings. The SLP, often wrestling with the highest caseload in all of special education, has one of the most pressing needs to be successful with children who require services. The SLP often works alone, with the energy of many minds and alternative solutions. He/she often does his/her own assessment, determines eligibility by state criteria, designs the method of intervention, carries out the therapy, and measures the rate of change of the student. Only he./she is able to determine if the progress is sufficient to continue the current intervention or if another approach is necessary. Only the SLP can recognize the steps toward improved communicative competence, and many times these early steps are not reflected in the classroom. Therefore, although the SLP and the child may be working diligently on a series of objectives that will lead to an improvement in reading, for example, the teacher does not see the connection with the class activities and the child often has a separate set of drills or vocabulary to memorize or learn. This "parallel" curriculum is unnecessary in the new model, since content from the classroom serves as the content for therapy, or even more effectively, therapy occurs in the classroom with the assistance and modeling of the typical children. Field based investigators suggest that SLPs are embracing this model for these four reasons:

1. The classroom is the most natural context for the use of language. Children communicate there all day, every day. Any other setting is artificial or contrived compared to the classroom.
2. Carryover and generalization is the most difficult part of therapy, therefore the more therapy and remediation that can take place in the classroom the better for the acquisition and maintenance of the new skills.
3. We have a changing population of children in our schools today- greater needs, more cultural diversity, and more children at risk. We cannot serve them all, but if we are there in the classroom more of them will benefit from the activities we design for the eligible students.
4. Our employers are educators and will measure our success by our ability to enhance the academic success of our students. It is not enough to say that a child has improved on a language or speech test or protocol, they must be able to use that new skill to be more effective learners or we are not true members of the educational team. SLPs in other settings become members of their hospital teams or university teams, we must do the same to maintain our credibility in the educational system where we know we are needed.

Some of the current consultation/collaboration programs in use today for speech language hearing services in the schools are outline below. Each one is unique to the skills of the clinician, the needs of the child, the degree of organization of core curriculum in each school, and the political and social environment of each community. They also have several elements in common. All of the programs described here provide service in the natural environment of the classroom, reduce the amount of time the child spends out of class, blends objectives and content of the speech/language remediation with the class, and utilizes peer rewards and reinforcement. The programs have been in operation about 4 years, have special application in rural schools and with culturally diverse children, and the author has worked closely in the development of each of them.

Samples of the New Models

Articulation therapy in the classroom: SLP clusters students with a variety of language learning disorders, and articulation carryover goals into a 6 th grade science class. The SLP co-teaches with the teacher three times a week alternately teaching the lesson, doing guided practice, working with target children in a small group, demonstrating graphic representations, mind mapping and predicting to assist special needs children to learn the material and practice their target phonemes in the regular class. Each child is scheduled for 90 minutes of therapy a week which is provided in the classroom.

Team Teaching/Remediation: SLP goes into the regular 10th grade US. History class one or two times a week for 42 minutes (length of high school period). SLP has 3 children with special needs in the classroom, and resource specialist has 4. Resource specialist alternates with SLP by going into the classroom every other week. These specialists outline the lecture on the chalkboard behind the teacher while he conducts class. All important points are underlined, new vocabulary spelled correctly, and sequence of main ideas maintained. Items for the weekly quizzes are starred by the teacher. The entire class may use the outline, however, it is specifically for the 7 identified students. Each child is scheduled for 80 minutes of therapy a week provided in the classroom. Goals and objectives are written to reflect sequencing skills, written language, main idea, and category organization skills using the history class content.

Three Week Pullout One Week In class Model : The SLP meets with the students on her caseload 3 weeks a month. The fourth week, she observes in every classroom where her children are, answering questions, assisting cooperative learning groups, correcting papers for the whole class (an excellent tool to determine how target children function), doing language enrichment activities for the core literature, and reminding children of their target sounds, or easy speech, or use of a full sentence by her mere presence . All children scheduled for speech and language services that week are credited with the time the SLP spends in their classroom (i.e. 4 children in a class the SLP visits for 30 minutes each are seen for 30 minutes that day.)

Core Literature Approach: The SLP meets with the primary teacher and determines what core literature books are being taught that year. They share their goals for the speech/language children on the SLP's caseload, and decide that the children will not miss any of the bonding activities for the core literature in the classroom. On those days the SLP will be in the room as an assistant and take two mixed groups of identified and non-identified children. The SLP will use the core literature book for all content for the student with multiple articulation disorders, and use the book and the workbook pages for the students with severe orientation, conceptual, and reading disorders. At least three of the activities carried out in the pull-out therapy program will be used in the classroom the following week assuring the identified students' success in front of their peers. Students are scheduled to receive 60 minutes of therapy a week, in class and in pull out sessions. The teacher's aide will assist with the in-class practice if the SLP is unable to attend the class meeting due to unusual travel conditions, or a hastily called meeting in another part of the county.

Teacher Provided Content for Pullout Sessions: The SLP meets with the classroom teachers for 5 students who are in 8th grade math classes that meet at different times of the day. The teacher gives the SLP the lesson to be taught the following week, and the SLP pre-teaches the new vocabulary, the sequence words, the operational terms, and the question statements in all the word problems. Students are scheduled for therapy 60 minutes a week which utilizes either the math curriculum or the SLP's selected content for their goals.

Storytelling with Semantic Organizers: The SLP has three schools and visits one class a week to present a lesson on storytelling. She selects a folk tale or similar high interest/high action 5 minute story and tells it to the whole class. The students all practice good listening habits, oral comprehension, increasing auditory memory, and visualization. The SLP co-teaches the remainder of the session using quick draws, journal writing, semantic organizers, dictation or similar facilitating approaches to reinforce the story for all students. The ensuing discussion enables the SLP to tap each identified child's target behavior in a group setting. Frequently, she combines 2 or more classes to increase the number of speech/language students in the group. All students in the storytelling group are counted for therapy minutes for the whole session (typically 40 minutes).

Preschool/Parent Collaboration Model: The SLP enrolls 10 preschool children in a program to remediate severe language delays. The children attend with a parent or care provider for one 60 minute session per week in the group. The SLP conducts the session with parents as facilitators for their children for 15 minutes, then as observers, then as facilitators again. The preschoolers attend a Headstart preschool or a typical local preschool the rest of the week, and the SLP works with them and the preschool teacher another 30 minutes per week in the company of their nonhandicapped peers. The students receive 90 minutes of therapy a week, and the parents and teachers are collaborators with the SLP for all interventions.

Each of these models has been successful for the SLP with one or multiple schools in a large geographic area that includes considerable driving time and distance. In each case, the SLP became a critical member of the school team, learned the core curriculum of the grade level or subject area involved, wrote meaningful, easy to read and measure goals, and enjoyed a productive, satisfying year (Bardzik, 1990; Christensen & Luckett, 1990; Welsh, 1990). Student outcomes in these cases met or exceeded dismissal rates for students in the traditional service delivery models 11% vs. 12% (Montgomery, 1986, 86, 88, 89, 90). Additional comparative data is needed on this topic from other field based practitioners in culturally diverse rural and urban school settings.

The significant change in SLP service delivery in schools described above is a strong indication that the communication disorders profession will meet the future with fresh new ideas and opportunities, hand in hand with our colleagues in regular education, to assure greater academic and personal achievement for children with communication disorders.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Barbara J. Reid
Co-Presenter: Mary Bross
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

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Project TRAIN: A Competency Based Training Program for Birth to Three Professionals Who Work in Rural Areas

Running head: Project TRAIN: TRAINING RURAL AREA INTERVENTIONISTS

Project TRAIN: A Competency Based Training Program for Birth to Three Professionals Who Work in Rural Areas

Introduction

Project TRAIN (Training Rural Area Interventionists to meet Needs) is a federally funded, personnel preparation grant that is housed in the Early Childhood: Exceptional Educational Needs (EC:EEN) training program in the Department of Special Education at the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater. The grant, which was funded under the rural competition, provides preservice training at the graduate level for early intervention professionals interested in working in rural areas with infants and toddlers who have special needs and with the families of these children. This article will include a discussion of Project TRAIN in terms of its rationale, description of the project, purpose, and expected outcomes. The Project TRAIN competencies and an innovative definition of an early interventionist who works with the birth to three population will be presented within the context of the roles and skills needed to provide quality intervention. Additionally, the competency based training program will be discussed in terms of the coursework and field experiences. Finally, SIGNAL (Supervisory Instrument of Gains and Needs to Assess Learners), which is a performance evaluation instrument for guiding professional development, will be described.

Project TRAIN

Rationale. Due to the unique character of rural areas, there are many problems and considerations associated with the delivery of services to children who have special needs and to their families. These include geographic barriers, climate limitations, distances between service providers and the clients, cultural differences, resistance to change, preference to rely on kinship rather than outsiders, transportation and funding inadequacies, and recruitment and retention of qualified personnel (Helge, 1983, 1984c; Mallory & Berkeley, 1987; Marrs, 1984). The need to find and retain personnel trained to effectively deal with the problems and special considerations identified in rural areas is highlighted in the literature as a primary concern (Helge, 1983, 1984c; Mallory & Berkeley, 1987; Marrs, 1984; Moriarity, 1981). Helge (1984c) and Mallory and Berkeley (1987) noted that the scarcity of support personnel and limited resources, frequently found in rural areas, require that special educators be prepared to function in a variety of roles.

In studies conducted by the National Rural Project, early intervention has been identified as an area of critical need in rural teacher preparation (Marrs, 1984). The problems and special considerations discussed previously in rural special education are present and at times exacerbated in the field of early intervention which typically includes children with low incidence handicaps (Helge, 1984c; Mills, Vadasy & Fewell, 1987; Widerstrom, Dornyslawski & McNulty, 1986). Helge (1983) also notes that specialized personnel such as speech and language clinicians, occupational and physical therapists commonly turn over at a 30 to 50 percent rate in rural communities. These professionals are traditionally viewed as key personnel in early childhood special education programs.

The passage of Public Law 99-457 in 1986, as an amendment to the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, represents a growing national concern for the welfare of young children with special needs, especially those from birth to three years of age, and for their families. Since early childhood special education preservice training programs, however, have traditionally focused on the 3 to 5 year old child (Bailey, Farel, O'Donnell, Simeonsson & Miller, 1986; Mallory, 1983; Siders, Riall, Campbell & Crow, 1987), there is an identified need for personnel trained to work with infants and toddlers (Bailey et al., 1986; Beckman & Burke, 1984; Siders, Riall, Bennett & Judd, 1987). Additionally, it has been established in the literature that there is a separate body of knowledge relating to infants and toddlers with special needs (Hanson, Hanline & Petersen, 1987; McCollum, 1987; Siders, Riall, Campbell & Crow, 1987).

Description, Purpose and Expected Outcomes. The purpose of Project TRAIN has been to establish and to provide preservice training at the graduate level to early intervention professionals interested in working in rural areas with infants and toddlers who have special needs and with the families of these children. Project TRAIN specifically addresses the shortages described above for personnel who are trained to function in a variety of positions in rural areas (Helge, 1983, 1984c; Mallory & Berkeley, 1987; Marrs, 1984; Moriarity, 1981) and who are prepared to provide direct service to infants and toddlers with special needs (Bailey, et al., 1986; Beckman & Burke, 1984; Siders, Riall, Bennett & Judd, 1987). The Project TRAIN competencies, which are the core of the training program, outline the roles and skills needed by early interventionists who work in rural areas.

The targeted populations for recruitment and training include early childhood special education teachers, who have experience in providing intervention with infants, toddlers and/or preschool children, and service providers from a variety of disciplines (e.g., occupational or physical therapy, speech and language pathology, nursing, etc.) who are interested in early intervention. In the third year of the grant 19 trainees have participated in Project TRAIN, all on a part-time basis.

The staff of Project TRAIN have maintained consistent involvement with the field through contact with direct service programs, families, administrators, state agencies, professional organizations, and Part H birth to three task forces. There is direct involvement with 22 birth to three programs, approximately 15 of which are in rural settings, that are available for fieldwork and practica experiences. The project staff have visited 18 of these programs within a 70 mile radius of the university, and conducted two annual orientation workshops with direct service personnel to familiarize them with the goals and objectives of the project and to solicit feedback and recommendations related to the developing training program. In addition to strengthening professional ties and the training program, these visits and workshops were effective recruitment tools.

Other expertise from the field have been accessed in the process of developing and implementing this project. Two consultants, who have directed rural birth to 3 programs, worked with the university EC:EEN faculty in conceptualizing and writing the original proposal. Additionally, these consultants have participated in recruiting trainees, teaching coursework, supervising trainees in their practica, and developing the competencies and SIGNAL. The Project TRAIN Advisory Council has also provided valuable support in the implementation of the grant. The members include parents, university faculty from the Department of Social Work, interdisciplinary direct service providers and administrators from birth to 3 programs, an EC:EEN teacher educator from the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, and both the state Part H coordinator and the state supervisor for EC:EEN. This strong connection to the field has greatly enhanced the project.

The goals of Project TRAIN are defined in three primary emphases:

(a) To provide graduate level training to professionals interested in working in rural areas with the birth to 3 population, who have special needs, and with their families. The emphasis of the training will be to enable the trainees to effectively function in education, social services, and health agencies;

(b) To evaluate the impact of the training program by following up the graduates who completed the training sequence; and,

(c) To provide financial assistance to enable students to participate in the training program.

The objectives for Project TRAIN were developed to facilitate the accomplishment of the project goals and to specify project activities. When the objectives and activities of the grant are completed the following benefits will be derived:

1. Development of a preservice training program that will address the need for early interventionists to provide service in rural areas;
2. Offer a preservice training program that will result in better service being provided to the birth to 3 population and their families;
3. Offer a preservice training program that will better prepare staff to adapt in rural settings and therefore reduce personnel turnover rates;

4. Offer a preservice training program that prepares trainees to provide staff development to fellow co-workers who may not have formal training or need to update their professional skills;
5. Offer a preservice training program that prepares trainees to facilitate comprehensive services in rural areas by establishing efficient networks and liaisons;
6. Provide an update to direct service providers on best practices in supervision and service delivery through the field site personnel orientation workshops; and,
7. Provide a model preservice training program for early interventionists in rural areas for replication.

Roles and Competencies

The Project TRAIN competencies were initially developed for the grant and were based upon the professional experience of the project director and coordinator, input from field consultants, and an extensive review of the literature in the following areas: (a) the distinct needs associated with providing services in rural areas (Helge, 1984b, 1984c; Hofmeister, 1984; Marrs, 1984); (b) the skills and abilities required of early interventionists who work with the birth to three population (Beckman & Burke, 1984; Brooks-Gunn & Lewis, 1983; Department of Public Instruction, 1987a; Evans, 1981; Geike, Gilkerson & Bergen-Sponseller, 1982; Hanson et al., 1987; Mallory, 1983; Mather & Weinstein, 1988; McCollum, 1982, 1987; Meisels, Jones & Steifel, 1983; Morris-ZEPP, 1987); and (c) the needs associated in training early interventionists to work in rural areas (Helge, 1984a; Mallory & Berkeley, 1987; Mills et al., 1987). In the first two years of the grant a two-part competency validation study was conducted with the assistance of direct service personnel, early childhood program support teachers, administrators, state-level personnel, university faculty, and parents. The competencies have been revised and strengthened due to this input. They provide the framework of the preservice training program, a vehicle for evaluating personnel performance (i.e., preservice and inservice) in early intervention programs, and a basis for determining professional development plans. It is hoped that the competencies also can serve as guidelines in evaluating services for the birth to three population.

The content of the training program specifically addresses the knowledge base and skills needed by early interventionists to function effectively. The roles that these professionals must fulfill are varied and diverse in relation to geographical location. These roles include: (a) direct service provider with infants, toddlers and families; (b) transdisciplinary team member and facilitator in early intervention; (c) community networker in early intervention; (d) facilitator of personnel and program development in early intervention and, (e) director of own professional development. The 50 competencies developed in Project TRAIN are listed within the context of these roles (see Figure 1).

The Training Program

The graduate training program includes both existing and new coursework (see Figure 2), fieldwork, and two graduate practica. Since the coursework in the established early childhood special education teacher preparation program covered many of the Project TRAIN competencies, only coursework that addressed the specializations had to be developed. The courses entitled "Implementing Intervention for Infants and Toddlers with Special Needs " and "Methods of Family Involvement and Parent Training", which will be retitled "Family Focused Intervention" to reflect the content more accurately, emphasize implementing best practice in early intervention. "Professional Skills Development in EC:EEN" focuses on the leadership skills needed in early intervention. The course includes work on collaborating, communicating effectively, teaming, and providing inservice training for staff and families.

I. Direct Service Provider for Birth to Three Population

A. WORKING WITH INFANTS AND TODDLERS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

1. Demonstrate knowledge of typical and atypical development of the young child
2. Utilize knowledge of typical and atypical child development in identifying strengths and needs of infants and toddlers (e.g., in evaluation, feedback to families, and development of the Individual Family Service Plan [IFSP])
3. Participate in the identification and screening process of infants and toddlers in rural and urban areas using appropriate instruments
4. Plan and implement developmental evaluation of infants and toddlers using appropriate instruments and methods of data collection
5. Write reports in a timely, concise, clear, and professional manner
6. Effectively participate in the multidisciplinary (e.g., medical, educational, and social, etc.) process of determining eligibility and needed services from initial intake to development with parents of goals for the IFSP
7. Develop individualized, transdisciplinary programming based on evaluation data, needs, input from assessment team, including parents, and IFSP goals
8. Effectively implement planned intervention and transition, when appropriate, in a variety of programs (e.g., medical, educational, or social service) and service delivery systems in rural and urban areas
9. Utilize computers and other appropriate technology to support the intervention process (e.g., record keeping, diagnostic feedback, decision making, etc.) and to access guidance and resources from others (e.g., adaptive equipment, life sustaining procedures, etc.)
10. Conduct ongoing evaluation of intervention programming from initial contact through transition

B. WORKING WITH FAMILIES

11. Demonstrate knowledge of current literature on family service models and changing family patterns
12. Demonstrate understanding of and respect for significant factors (e.g., family structure, socioeconomic status, cultural context, religion, and the impact of family members who have medical or other special needs, etc.) that affect family functioning
13. Utilize communication and other interpersonal skills needed to effectively work with families (e.g., family interviews, home visits, and group activities, etc.) in rural and urban areas
14. Plan and implement family assessments (i.e., identification with parent(s) of family needs, strengths, resources, and goals for the IFSP) using appropriate instruments and methods in recognition of ethical concerns
15. Develop, in partnership with parent(s), individual family participation plans based on mutually selected roles (e.g., case manager/service facilitator, advocate, and interventionist, etc.), and projects identified in the IFSP goals to enhance family empowerment
16. Effectively implement flexible family participation opportunities based on the mutually planned IFSP goals
17. Utilize available resources (e.g., parent/family meetings, newsletters, library materials, community services, etc.) to work with families and enhance family empowerment opportunities in rural and urban areas
18. Utilize computers and other technological resources to generate information for children and families and to provide instruction for family members and primary caregivers
19. Conduct, in partnership with parent(s), ongoing evaluation of family participation process from initial contact through transition

II. Transdisciplinary Team Member and Facilitator in Early Intervention

A. TRANSDISCIPLINARY TEAM MEMBER

20. Demonstrate an understanding of the roles and functions of the various professionals (e.g., occupational therapist, physical therapist, speech and language clinician, educator, social worker, physician, nurse, psychologist, etc.) involved in early intervention
21. Demonstrate an understanding of the primary teaming styles used in early intervention (e.g., multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary, and transdisciplinary) and identify the benefits and limitations associated with each
22. Evaluate and improve interpersonal skills needed for effective transdisciplinary teaming (e.g., active listening, assertive interactions, conflict resolution, and collaborative problem solving)
23. Effectively implement transdisciplinary teaming skills within the structure of service programs in rural and urban areas

B. CASE MANAGER/SERVICE FACILITATOR, ADVOCATE, AND CONSULTANT

24. Demonstrate knowledge of the responsibilities of the case manager/service facilitator, the child and/or family advocate, and the consultant
25. Effectively function in the role of a case manager/service facilitator (e.g., coordinating interagency services, facilitating transitions, and accessing new services, etc.) in rural and urban areas

Figure 1. Project TRAIN competencies.

26. Effectively function, as appropriate, in the role of child and/or family advocate or consultant
27. Effectively communicate and work with all persons related to the intervention process through verbal and written expression
28. Utilize computers and other technologies to access resources for advocacy and problem solving (e.g., SPECIAL NET and American Council on Rural Special Education [ACRES] bulletin boards, etc.)

III. Community Networker in Early Intervention

29. Demonstrate knowledge of community dynamics, governing structure, and impact communities can have on families who have children with special needs in rural and urban areas
30. Demonstrate knowledge of service delivery options and the differences involved in working with children who have special needs and with their families in rural versus urban communities
31. Demonstrate knowledge of best practices in special education service delivery in rural areas
32. Identify, evaluate, and effectively access resources (e.g., technological, agencies, organizations, and individuals) within rural and urban communities for funding, transportation, respite care, training, and other needs
33. Effectively participate, as possible, in organizational and community change (e.g., the Community Approach to Integrated Social Services [CAISS], etc.) that leads to improved services

IV. Facilitator of Personnel and Program Development in Early Intervention

A. TRAINING AND SUPERVISION RESPONSIBILITIES

34. Demonstrate knowledge of adult learning and best practices in inservice training (e.g., needs assessment, conflict resolution, group dynamics, transdisciplinary teaming, etc.)
35. Utilize a needs assessment to plan a training sequence that differentiates training goals in response to varying backgrounds, roles, levels of ability, and geographical location and includes a variety of techniques for adult learners
36. Conduct and evaluate a planned training sequence and modify it based on feedback from participants and supervisor
37. Demonstrate an understanding of the principles of supervision
38. Participate in the supervision and evaluation, as appropriate, of personnel involved in the early intervention program

B. ADMINISTRATIVE AND PROGRAM ADVOCACY RESPONSIBILITIES

39. Demonstrate knowledge regarding the efficacy of early intervention and the essential components of a functional and effective program
40. Demonstrate knowledge of different approaches to and uses of program evaluation
41. Identify and participate, as possible, in program administrative procedures (e.g., evaluation, hiring personnel, etc.)
42. Demonstrate knowledge of federal and state laws as well as the rules and regulations that pertain to services for infants and toddlers with special needs and their families
43. Identify and effectively access primary sources of federal, state, county, and private funds (e.g., P.L.89-313, P.L. 99-457, Title XIX [Medical Assistance], Social Security Income [SSI], Women, Infants and Children [WIC] program, insurance coverage, Family Support, and Katie Beckett, etc.) for implementing and improving early intervention services
44. Demonstrate an understanding of the components of an early intervention program budget and the strategies incorporated to access quality services
45. Utilize current research on early intervention to plan and implement public relations/program advocacy presentations and/or to develop proposals (e.g. conference presentations, research publications, etc.)
46. Review and write a response to a Request for Proposal (RFP) related to early intervention

V. Director of Own Professional Development

47. Demonstrate an understanding of the need for continuing personal and professional development and for building a local support system in respect to the differences in rural and urban areas
48. Identify and utilize existing resources (e.g., feedback from supervisor, fellow professionals and clients; professional organizations and projects; inservice and advanced training opportunities) to evaluate own strengths and needs
49. Design a professional development plan based on the assessment of strengths and needs, and engage in selected activities (e.g., state hearings, regional, state, and national meetings, professional organizations, inservice and interdisciplinary staff training, reading for professional growth, etc.) to meet goals for professional growth
50. Keep abreast of current issues, trends, techniques, and technology in the field of early intervention and incorporate the information and skills into own professional practice

Figure 1 continued. Project TRAIN competencies.

Project TRAIN Graduate Training Coursework

Working with Infants/Toddlers
with Special Needs and their
Families (3 credits)

* Methods of Family
Involvement and Parent
Training (3 credits)

* Technological Skills
for EC:EEN (1 credit)

* Professional Skills
Development for EC:EEN (3 credits)

* Meeting Human Needs in
Rural Areas (3 credits)

Survey of Research
Literature in Severe
Disabilities (3 credits)

* Implementing Intervention
for Infants and Toddlers with
Special Needs (3 credits)

Techniques for the Multiple
Handicapped (3 credits)

Seminar: Life Span Issues
in Special Education
Curriculum (3 credits)

Techniques of Educational
Research (3 credits)

Manual Communication
or demonstrated proficiency (1 credit)

Two Graduate Practica with
Seminars (6 credits)

* Indicates a new course developed for the grant.

Figure 2. Project TRAIN graduate training coursework.

The two courses developed to address the intricacies of rural service delivery were "Technological Skills in EC:EEN" and "Meeting Human Needs in Rural Areas". The content from the technological workshop will be integrated into the infant methods class described above. The latter course, which was designed by a specialist in rural social work in consultation with the project director, requires the students to network with rural service delivery agents. Additionally, case studies depicting families in rural areas, fieldwork in rural programs, and literature on rural service delivery are integrated throughout the courses. Families and direct service personnel from rural and urban areas also present in classes and/or assist in teaching the courses.

Each trainee participates in two six-week practica experiences to complete the specialization emphasis. One of these practicum will be in a rural early intervention program, preferably using home-based services; while the other is in a more urban setting which is typically center-based. This practice allows the trainee to have direct experience in both settings and to be aware of the resources and difficulties inherent in each. During their practica, the trainees also participate in a weekly seminar with their university supervisors. The topics, which are selected in consultation with the trainees, have included budgets, funding alternatives, rules and regulations, and public relations activities. The trainees are required to develop a proposal for a presentation at a professional conference.

In addition to the coursework and field-based experiences described above, the trainees take two graduate level seminars and a course on research techniques. They may choose in consultation with their advisor to satisfactorily write a comprehensive examination or complete a thesis to obtain a master's degree.

SIGNAL

The Supervisory Instrument of Gains and Needs to Assess Learners (SIGNAL) is a performance based instrument developed within the framework of the roles and competencies defined in Project TRAIN. It was designed to assess the professional skills and abilities of early intervention personnel and to provide the basis for individual professional development plans. It is used at the preservice level by university trainees for self-assessment and by supervisory personnel both from the field site and the university for ongoing evaluation of the students' growth. At the inservice level it is used by early intervention (birth to three) program staff and supervisors for developing individualized programs of professional growth. The competencies included in SIGNAL are those primarily associated with practicum or on-the-job training.

Before each practicum, the trainees evaluate themselves on SIGNAL as a pre-assessment. Their strengths and primary areas for growth are jointly identified by each trainee with the project director. The university supervisor uses the pre-assessment information, in collaboration with the trainee and the cooperating field site personnel, to develop and prioritize individualized goals for professional growth. A plan for professional development is outlined that specifies the activities for accomplishing the goals. At the end of each practicum the same participants re-evaluate the trainee's professional growth and design a new plan for on-going development. To facilitate this process the rating scale is defined in terms of the individual's use of the skills defined in the competencies. The rating scale and an example of the format for rating one competency are included in Figure 3. Since the time frame for evaluation of professional growth is longer at the inservice level, a mid-year rating is also included. The same rating scale and format are used at both the preservice and inservice levels. SIGNAL has been well received by practitioners in birth to 3 programs, field-site supervisory personnel, and trainees. Practitioners specifically identify the helpfulness of delineating the roles and competencies needed for early interventionists. Additionally, they report that the structure of the rating scale is helpful in identifying goals for professional development while decreasing the negative side effects of evaluating staff.

Key to Rating Scale:

N	=	Need to Learn	Needs to learn the information or skill in the competency
B/E	=	Beginning/Emerging	Has an initial understanding of the information or skill in the competency
FA	=	Functionally Applies	Functionally applies the information or skill in the competency
C	=	Competent	Competently articulates the information and/or consistently demonstrates the skill independently
M	=	Mastery	Generalizes the information or skill and can train others (e.g., parents, paraprofessionals, and professionals) in the competency
NA/NO	=	Not Applicable/No Opportunity	

Project TRAIN Competencies

I. DIRECT SERVICE PROVIDER FOR BIRTH TO THREE POPULATION

	PRE		MID		POST	
A. Working with Infants and Toddlers with Special Needs Utilize knowledge of typical and atypical child development in identifying strengths and needs of infants and toddlers (e.g., in evaluation, feedback to families, and development of the Individual Family Service Plan [IFSP] (2)	B/E	Comments:	C	Comments:	M	Comments:

Figure 3. SIGNAL rating scale and rating format.

Conclusions

As expected in any process of change, there are limitations and benefits in the implementation of a new or expanded training emphasis. Additionally, there are problems specifically associated with early intervention and rural service delivery which also affected the implementation of Project TRAIN. Recruitment was a difficult task even though traditional (e.g., awarding student stipends, targeting rural area personnel), and creative (e.g., free workshops on current issues in early intervention) recruitment strategies were effectively used. Personnel working in birth to three programs typically receive much lower salaries than those employed in public schools or medical programs. This barrier limited enrollment for a number of interested professionals who felt they could not afford to take a cut in pay. Additionally, many potential trainees lived in rural and urban areas that were too distant for commuting to campus. Distance learning opportunities and off-campus programming will be explored in the future.

Another restriction has been the amount of time required of faculty, while maintaining their other responsibilities within the university, to administer the developing training program, advise trainees, and supervise trainees in a variety of rural and urban locations. Additionally, this campus has a small number of training programs in the various disciplines involved in early intervention. It would have been impossible to implement the goals and objectives of Project TRAIN and provide interdisciplinary training without the critical, albeit limited resources of this federal training grant, and the support and cooperation of concerned field site personnel.

The benefits of implementing Project TRAIN have outweighed the limitations. The expected outcomes are being realized. A field validated graduate training program has been developed and is in the process of being integrated into the university curriculum. The competencies and SIGNAL have been developed and are being used in two field site programs for staff development, in Project TRAIN, and with an adapted version in the undergraduate program. Additionally, these materials have been disseminated nationally through conference presentations, and extensively in the state. They have been shared with Part H personnel in task forces and used in a faculty institute on early intervention. Another benefit has been the strengthening of networks among university faculty, families, and birth to three service providers. These connections are being used to enhance the faculty's training efforts, to improve services to the birth to three population, and to facilitate communication between the personnel of direct service programs. Finally, professionals are being trained who will be better prepared to provide early intervention with families for infants and toddlers who have special needs, to deliver services within the confines of rural or urban areas, and to provide leadership in this rapidly growing field of human services.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Lorna Lacina
Co-Presenter: Nancy T. Morris
James C Calder
JoAnn Soileau
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

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Rhythm and Blues:
Enhancing Learning Through Movement and Music

(A Look at the Modes of Presentation
of Special Education and Regular Elementary Teachers
in a Rural School District in Louisiana)

Paper presented at the
American Council on Rural Special Education
Eleventh Annual Conference
March 18, 1991
Nashville, Tennessee

Rhythm and Blues: Enhancing Learning Through Movement and Music

Children vary greatly in the way they perceive and interact with the world and when applied to learning, this is their personal learning style. The styles movement fits in with a "personalized" view of education appropriate to an increasingly diverse student population. While some research (Armstrong, 1987; Barbe, 1985; Carbo, 1990; Dunn & Dunn, 1987) indicates that teaching children through their personal learning style results in improved attitudes towards school, a decrease in behavior problems, and improved test scores; other research (Doyle & Rutherford, 1984; Kavale & Forness, 1987; McCarthy, 1990; O'Neil, 1990; Snider, 1990) indicates that the key to effective instruction is to present material through multiple approaches. Since children are all different, a single way of teaching would limit learning.

At-risk or mildly handicapped children have much to gain from style based learning. Because a lack of alternatives to traditional lecture and textbook based teaching would work against handicapped learners, differentiated instruction that takes advantage of student learning strength is widely used in special education.

In Howard Gardner's (1983) discourse on the theory of multiple intelligences, he identifies seven intelligences that each person possesses in varying degrees. These seven intelligences are: spatial or the ability to think in images and pictures, linguistic or highly developed auditory skills, bodily-kinesthetic or processing information through bodily sensations, logical-mathematical or highly abstract thinking ability, musical or the ability to think and remember with music, intrapersonal or intuitive ability, and interpersonal or ability to communicate with others. The additional area of the ability to work with a partner has been added to this study.

The purpose of the present study was to identify how frequently special education and regular elementary teachers vary the mode of presentation in their lessons. The research questions addressed were:

1. How frequently are the various modes of presentation used in each of the four subject areas by special education teachers?

2. How frequently are the various modes of presentation used in each of the four subject areas by regular elementary teachers?

3. Is there a significant difference between the amount of time spent in each mode of presentation in each of four subject areas among special education and regular elementary teachers?

Methodology

Sample

The sample for the study was limited to K-6 grade teachers from four schools in a rural school district in Louisiana. A questionnaire was given to 114 elementary teachers. Twenty-three percent or 27 were special education teachers and the remaining 87 taught in traditional elementary classrooms.

The range of teaching experience was from 0 to 39 years with the most frequently reported number of years teaching experience being ten years. Seventy-five percent of the teachers had bachelors degrees while the remaining had masters degrees or masters degrees with additional coursework.

Instrumentation

A two section questionnaire was developed specifically for the data collection activities of this study. The first section requested demographic data including grade level taught, subject area(s) taught, years of teaching experience, and highest degree held. The second section consisted of eight statements about modes of presentation which could be implemented in language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies lessons. The eight statements asked teachers how often they provided opportunities for students to learn in the following ways: by including pictures, charts, or other visuals; by saying and hearing; through gestures and movement; by providing manipulatives; with music, rhythm, or melody; by working alone; by working with a partner; and by working in a group. Teachers were asked to rate the frequency of use of these modes of presentation in each subject area on a Likert type scale. The categories ranged from never to very frequently.

Analysis and Findings

Data were treated descriptively for the purpose of this study. Frequencies and percentages were used to report the data in section one of the questionnaire and the mean and standard deviation of the Likert type response for each of the items were reported. Differences in frequency of presentation modes between special education and regular elementary teachers were analyzed through the use of t-tests.

Question One. Special education teachers were asked to rate the frequency of use of eight modes of presentation in each of four subject areas. A summary of these ratings is found in Table 1. The table indicates that 10 items received a rating higher than 4.5 and are used very frequently in lessons. These items are use of visuals, auditory means, and cooperative learning in language arts; use of auditory means and manipulatives in mathematics; use of visuals, auditory means, and manipulatives in science; and use of visuals and auditory means in social studies. Eighteen items received a rating between 3.5 and 4.5 and are implemented frequently in lessons. These items are the use of movement, manipulatives, working alone, and working with a partner in language arts; use of visuals, movement, working alone, working with a partner, and cooperative learning in mathematics; use of movement, working alone, working with a partner, and cooperative learning in science; and use of movement, manipulative, working alone, working with a partner, and cooperative learning in social studies. The remaining four items received a rating between 2.5 and 3.5. These items, use of music in language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies, are sometimes used in lessons.

Question Two. Regular elementary teachers were asked to rate the frequency of use of eight modes of presentation in each of four subject areas. A summary of these ratings is found in Table 1. This table indicates that 4 items received a rating of higher than 4.5. These four items, use of auditory means and working alone in language arts and use of auditory means and working alone in mathematics, are used very frequently in lessons. Twenty items received a rating between 3.5 and 4.5 and are used frequently in lessons. These items are use of visuals, movement, manipulatives, working with a partner, and cooperative learning in language arts; use of visuals, movement, manipulatives, working with a partner, and cooperative learning in mathematics; use of visuals, auditory means, manipulatives, working alone, and cooperative learning in science; and use of visuals, auditory means, manipulatives, working alone, and cooperative learning in social studies. Five items received a rating between 2.5 and 3.5 and are sometimes used in lessons. These items are use of music in language arts; use of movement and working with a partner in science; and use of movement and working with a partner in social studies. The remaining three items received a rating between 1.5 and 2.5. These items are use of music in mathematics, science, and social studies and are seldom used in lessons.

Question Three. The final question addressed by this study sought to determine whether differences in frequency of use of modes of presentation occur between special education and regular elementary teachers. Data were reported to show the relationship between special education and regular elementary teachers responses.

A relative comparision among the mean scores of special education and regular elementary teachers is shown in Table 1. Twenty-eight items received higher mean ratings by special education teachers and fourteen of these ratings were found to be significantly different from one another. These modes of presentation were found more frequently in the special education classroom than in the traditional classroom. The ratings were statistically significant for the visual category in language arts, science, and social studies; for the auditory category in language arts, science, and social studies; for the movement category in mathematics; for the manipulatives category in all four subject areas; and for the music and rhythm category in mathematics, science, and social studies.

Four items received higher mean ratings by regular elementary teachers and all were found to be significantly different from one another. The mode of presentation found more frequently in the regular classroom than in the special education classroom was working alone in language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies. No significant difference was found in the categories of working with a partner or cooperative learning when special education and regular elementary teachers were compared.

Conclusions

Special education teachers used all of the modes of presentation more frequently than regular elementary teachers except that of working alone. Both groups failed to use music to expected levels in language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies and regular elementary teachers surprisingly failed to use movement and working with a partner in science and social studies. As variety of modes of presentation are decreased in the classroom, teachers run the risk of reaching fewer and fewer students. Thus, the most direct effect may be an increase in the drop out rate and failure to reach the at-risk learner.

Research has strongly shown that attention to learning style greatly enhances learning (Dunn, Beaudry, & Klavis, 1989). This study adds evidence that special education teachers focus attention to learning style by utilizing a multi-sensory approach of presentation to a greater extent than regular elementary teachers. This knowledge seems to be an integral part of teacher training of special education teachers.

Since all learners learn better through utilization of learning styles, it seems reasonable to assume that regular elementary teachers need to incorporate additional modes of teaching and learning with their daily lesson plans. Gregorc and Ward (1977) further propose team teaching and grouping teachers of different learning styles in order to reach the learning potential of children. Utilizing all modes enables both rapid learners and slower learners to maximize their learning experiences.

Although extensive work by Slavin (1983, 1987) indicates that cooperative learning and dyadic teams enhance student learning and attitude towards learning, these findings do not seem to have permeated to the practitioner level. Regular classroom teachers by and large do not present lessons that require cooperative work and generally restrict cooperative work to non-academic projects.

Perhaps large class size would prevent regular classroom teachers from utilizing group learning as much as that shown by special education teachers. Special education classes with limited enrollment seems to be better suited to facilitate group learning within this arrangement.

Presentation modes involving music, movement, and manipulatives are underutilized in the classroom. Guidelines based on information processing theory (Ellis & Hunt, 1989; Gagne, 1985) describe ways to enhance students' attention, retention, and retrieval of information. Many of these guidelines incorporate music, movement, and manipulatives in the classroom. Even though these guidelines are available in the literature, the information may not have filtered down to the classroom level. Increased attention by teachers to modes of presentation has the potential to help all learners regardless of their learning potential.

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Table 1

Comparison of Ratings Between Regular Elementary Teachers and Special Education Teachers

Item	Spec. Means	Reg. Means	T-Value	df
Visual				
Lang.	4.66	4.13	2.53**	106
Math	4.30	4.04	1.19	104
Sci.	4.53	4.02	1.93*	92
SS	4.62	4.10	2.26*	97
Auditory				
Lang.	4.95	4.73	2.03*	106
Math	4.78	4.57	1.30	104
Sci.	4.76	4.29	2.01*	92
SS	4.81	4.33	2.40*	97
Movement				
Lang.	4.08	3.65	1.70	102
Math	4.08	3.58	1.98*	103
Sci.	3.91	3.41	1.50	89
SS	3.87	3.42	1.60	94
Manipulatives				
Lang.	4.17	3.62	2.07*	104
Math	4.65	4.12	2.35*	104
Sci.	4.53	3.70	2.65**	92
SS	4.18	3.54	2.33*	96
Music				
Lang.	3.13	2.72	1.30	104
Math	3.09	2.48	1.96*	104
Sci.	3.41	2.16	3.88***	91
SS	3.26	2.40	2.71**	95
Alone				
Lang.	3.79	4.60	-4.61***	106
Math	3.86	4.63	-4.63***	104
Sci.	3.61	4.25	-2.46*	92
SS	3.62	4.21	-2.42*	96
Partner				
Lang.	3.79	3.64	0.66	106
Math	3.69	3.61	0.35	104
Sci.	3.53	3.39	0.46	92
SS	3.62	3.39	0.93	96
Group				
Lang.	4.50	4.02	1.90	106
Math	4.26	3.83	1.71	104
Sci.	4.15	3.69	1.49	92
SS	3.87	3.76	0.37	96

Note. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Debra C. Clarke
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

Debra C. Clarke
West Virginia University

PSYCHOLOGY OF ACADEMIC SELF MANAGEMENT: AN INNOVATIVE COLLEGE COURSE DESIGNED FOR RURAL AT-RISK COLLEGE STUDENTS

INTRODUCTION

During the last decade colleges have been opening their doors to an ever increasing number of at risk students. Institutions of higher learning have been admitting these students in order to stabilize enrollments and to meet affirmative action goals (Abrams & Jernigan, 1984). However, the mere admission of these students does not solve the above-mentioned problems; instead the admission of at risk students creates another problem that colleges have been fighting for years. That problem is dealing with high drop-out rates. Students who come to college with deficiencies in basic skills and a history of limited academic performance are prime drop-out candidates (Cope & Hannah, 1975). According to Abrams and Jernigan (1984) and Baldridge, Kemerer, and Green (1982) academic support services are an important factor in increasing the probability that at-risk students will remain in college. A variety of such academic support services have been instituted at colleges across the United States. Learning centers and specialized learning labs are becoming commonplace at many colleges. In addition special courses have been designed to assist the at-risk student to develop the necessary skills so that they can become an active participant in the learning process.

The importance of transforming the student from a passive learner to an active learner has been stressed by several researchers including Fox (1985), Heiman and Slomianko (1988), Nieves (1982), and Sherman (1985). It is apparent that the creation of an active learner involves more than just the provision of academic support services. At-risk students need support services; they need instruction in specific study skills to help them become effective students, but they also need more than just study skills. They need to realize that they are in control of their academic destiny. Students who reach that level of realization tend to attain higher levels of achievement (Sherman, 1985).

In the mid 1980's, West Virginia University realized the need for a specialized course to address the needs of at-risk students who were entering the University. The Department of Psychology was given the task to develop such a course. Under the direction of Redmon and Wylie (1985), a self-management and study skills training program was developed. From its early beginnings as a three hour credit, individualized training program for entering at-risk freshmen, the course has evolved into a three part program that emphasizes the instruction of specific study skills, the development of academic problem solving skills, and the acquisition of time and self-management skills.

GENERAL COURSE DESCRIPTION

Psychology 25, Psychology of Academic Self-Management, is a three hour credit course for at risk students attending West Virginia University. The university is located in the rural Appalachian region. The majority of the students enrolled in the course are from rural areas. The course is designed to ease the rural at-risk student's transition from the rural high school to the university setting. As a result the course does not just focus on study skills instruction, but encompasses other skills necessary for the rural student to have a positive college experience.

At-risk students are defined as entering freshmen with an ACT composite score or SAT equivalent score of 15 or less and/or a high school grade point average of 2.5 or less. In addition underclassmen are labeled at-risk if they meet one of the following requirements: (a) have failed a course, (b) are on academic probation, (c) are returning from academic suspension. Specific recruitment procedures for the course are handled by the course coordinator who maintains contacts with student academic advisors and sends letters to eligible incoming freshmen prior to summer orientation sessions.

Four sections of the course are taught during the fall semester and three are offered during the spring semester. Each course section is limited to an enrollment of twenty students. The sections are taught by the course coordinator or a graduate assistant. In addition each course section is also staffed by two student teaching assistants, students who have successfully completed the course the previous semester. The student teaching assistants help with the instructional duties and provide invaluable peer-tutoring assistance.

SPECIFIC COURSE DESCRIPTION

During the first seven weeks of the course the students are taught specific study skills. These skills focus on making the student more effective at acquiring information through lectures and reading, organizing that information to facilitate efficient use of study time, and recalling that information as required at exam time. Once the skills are taught the students are expected to use the skills for the remainder of the semester in all of their courses. Individual consultation sessions are held with the course instructor during the final eight weeks of the semester to assure skill mastery as well as to monitor skill usage.

As students are being taught the specific study skills, they are also introducted to a bi-weekly written exercise known as a problem analysis. This activity requires the student to analyze their performance in each course in which they are enrolled. The focus of the task is to make students realize that they play an instrumental role in their academic destiny. The problem analysis for each course must contain three elements: (a) a reporting of the student's current grade in the course and specific reasons why the student is receiving that grade, (b) a listing of the assignments in the course for the upcoming two weeks and a specific timetable for completion of the assignments, (c) a listing of problem behaviors that are impacting the student's performance in the course and the naming of specific solutions to deal with the problem behaviors.

In addition to the study skills and the problem analysis exercises, students are taught time and self-management skills through a hands-on activity. The self-management project consists of a seven week individual experiment that each student conducts. During the first two weeks the students keep a log listing all of their daily activities. In addition they maintain a separate study data log. In the study log they record the settings where each study session occurs, the length of the study session and the quality of the study session. All of this baseline data is summarized and analyzed by the student with the end result being an individualized study plan developed by the student. In the plan the student sets a goal related to study time and quality, manipulates study session settings in an effort to achieve the goal, and designs a reward system to encourage desired study behaviors. The plan is then implemented and daily study activity data is collected over a five week period. The data is summarized weekly and adjustments are made to the plan as necessary. At the conclusion of the five weeks, the student prepares a final report assessing the effectiveness of the self-management activity.

The final component of West Virginia University's academic self-management course is the personal improvement project. This segment of the course is designed to acquaint students with the various support services that the University offers for its students. The services include a reading and study skills lab, a writing lab, a math lab, a foreign language lab, a residence hall tutoring program, a career services center, and a student counseling service. Course instructors are also considered a valid support service. Over the course of the semester the students are required to spend twelve hours outside of class utilizing one or more of the support services.

CASE STUDIES

Many success stories have evolved from the Psychology 25 program. At-risk students have gained the skills offered by the course and used the skills to achieve academic success. Frank and Rachel represent two of the success stories. Frank is a West Virginia native who enrolled in Psycholgy 25 during the Spring 1990 semester. He had spent the previous year on academic suspension. He admitted to me that he made it through high school with a limited amount of studying and had cut his high school classes many times. He thought he could use the same tactics in college, but his plan backfired, and he was asked to sit out a year because of his poor academic standing. Frank mastered the study skills taught in Psychology 25 and he successfully completed the other components of the course. Frank really liked the self-management part of the course because he was trying to balance a full time job and a full time student course load. Frank completed the semester with a grade point average just above a 3.0 and was very proud of his accomplishments. He returned to the university in Fall 1990 and completed that semester with a grade point average of just under a 3.0. The student who in January 1990 was lamenting his fate and just hoping he could make it through college told me in December 1990 that he was considering going to law school after he completed his undergraduate degree.

Rachel, also a West Virginia resident, finished her first semester at West Virginia University with a grade point average less than 2.0. She enrolled in Psychology 25 in the Spring 1990 semester. She confided in me that she had really tried to do well during her first semester, but that she just couldn't achieve success. She had spent numerous hours studying for exams, but her efforts were not productive. She was very frustrated with her situation. Rachel was intrigued by the study skills introduced in the course. She put them to work immediately and was pleasantly surprised that her exam grades were improving. Rachel liked the problem analysis activity because it forced her to continually assess her progress in all of her courses. The self-management project helped her to assess her study settings and select the settings that were most productive. Rachel finished the semester with just under a 3.0 grade point average. She was glad to see that her study efforts were finally beginning to pay off. Rachel returned to the university the following semester and earned a 3.4 grade point average. The quiet, frustrated student whom I had met in January 1990 had transformed into a confident, enthusiastic student over the course of one year.

SUMMARY

At-risk rural college students need not have a negative academic experience. Specialized courses can be designed to assist their transition from the rural high school to the university setting. The specialized courses must not just focus on improving study skills; they must also concentrate on other obstacles that the rural at-risk student must surmount such as deficient self-management and academic problem solving skills. In addition, specialized courses should introduce students to support services that the university provides so that the student can develop their own support network that they can tap into during the course of their college career. The Psychology of Academic Self-Management course at West Virginia University has combined all of the necessary components into its curriculum. The course known to students as Psychology 25 has successfully assisted many rural at-risk college students in their efforts to achieve academic success.

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ACRES PRESENTATION

Presenter: Hope Keiser
Co-Presenter: Lynn C. Coates
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Kay S. Bull
Co-Presenter: Diane Montgomery
Adrienne Hyle
Keith Salyer
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

Kay S. Bull
Diane Montgomery
Adrienne E. Hyle
B. Keith Salyer

ADMINISTRATOR'S PERCEPTIONS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION DROPOUTS:
A Comparison of Priorities by School Location

Abstract

Administrators (N=891) in rural, urban and suburban districts were asked the relative priority they assigned to causes of dropping out of school. Results indicate that the priorities for administrators were not those needed to keep special education students in school. Specifically, urban administrators were more likely to hold higher priorities for the special education contributing variables of medical problems, no hope for graduation and being too old for peer groups, than were rural or suburban administrators. Data were interpreted as being supportive of other studies which indicate special education students are typically not the focus of dropout prevention efforts.

Administrator's Perceptions of Special Education Dropouts: A Comparison of Priorities by School Location

Special education students are typically ignored when causes of dropping out of school are examined, yet a great number of students who are in special education are among the ranks of those who drop out of school (Cobb & Crump, 1984; Edgar, 1987; Fardig, Algozzine, Schwartz, Hensel & Westling, 1985; Hess & Lauber, 1985; Hoffman, Sheldon, Minskoff, Sautter, Steidle, Baker, Bailey & Echols, 1987; New York City Board of Education, 1985). In fact, Education of the Handicapped (1989) noted that despite the fact that 44% of all special education students drop out of school, dropout prevention programs rarely benefit children in special education.

Rural areas are particularly vulnerable to special education dropouts (Helge, 1989). Many services for special students taken for granted in urban areas are not available or are available only with extreme difficulty in rural areas. Because services are lacking, special students are increasingly at-risk for dropping out.

Pallas (1987) asserts that urban students drop out at a higher rate than their rural or suburban peers. In addition, having a disability is seen as making graduation more difficult (Viadero, 1989). Students with mild handicaps may believe they can more easily compete in a non-academic setting. This leads to the choice of getting a job in the community and no longer viewing school as a viable alternative (Lichtenstein & Zantal-Weiner, 1988).

Recognizing that federal law mandates specialized educational services for these students and that almost half of special education students drop out of school, to what extent are public schools and administrators addressing this issue?

The purpose of this article is two-fold. The first is to provide a description of the variables identified in the literature relating to special education students dropping out of school. The second is to report the national priorities for these variables as reported by principals and superintendents in public education.

Causes of Dropping Out

Each year, a Phi Delta Kappa study is conducted concerning problems in the schools of America. The 1989 report noted that three-fourths of the principals surveyed said graduation requirements had increased in their districts. In addition, seven out of ten principals reported the practice of regularly retaining students. Even though only 25% of the respondents thought that retention was effective, 70% used retention in their schools (Frymier & Gansneder, 1989).

Retention in grade. Retention is thought to be a cause for some special students dropping out. Being retained in grade is a blow to academic self-esteem and those who have been retained are four times as likely to dropout as those who have not been retained (Widmann & Hoisden, 1988). A direct result of being retained is being over age for grade level and Hahn (1987) reports 41% of the dropouts in Los Angeles cited being over age as their reason for dropping out. This factor links with another predictor of dropping out, academic weakness, the traditional difficulty special education students have with basic skills.

This factor of older student age and its relationship to dropping out of school have been recognized by many researchers in the field including Beck and Muia (1982), Bernoff (1981), Ekstrom, Goertz, Pollack, and Rock (1986), Hess (1987), Hess and Lauber (1985) and Stephenson (1985).

No hope of graduating. In a recent study of rural special education teachers and administrators, Bull, Salyer and Montgomery (1990) found that more than 75% of the respondents thought that those who were without hope of graduating were at-risk for dropping out. This variable is also supported by Widmann and Hoisden (1988) across the broad spectrum of district types.

Frustration with school. Special education students who drop out, primarily those with learning disabilities, report schooling experiences typified by frustration and academic failure (Levin, Zigmond & Birch, 1985). This leads them to drop out (Barr & Knowles, 1986). Learning disabled students in programs which lead to academic success and challenge, rather than frustration, are more likely to maintain their status in school. Bull, Salyer and Montgomery (1990) found that eliminating frustration was one of the highest priorities in trying to deal with the dropout problem in rural locales.

One reason for the frustration of students is the lack of an appropriate educational program. Many special education students can perform if provided with an interesting and appropriate educational diet. The variety needed can be found in vocational/technical curricular offerings. Oftentimes, however, schools only offer an academic curriculum because of limited programming, small size and distance from central vocational/technical schools. As a result, many special education students who could graduate if offered a vocational curriculum are sentenced to an academic curriculum which has little perceived relevance to their interests or capabilities.

In a survey of rural special educators, Bull, Salyer and Montgomery (1990) found that 60% of the respondents believed that the addition of a strong vocational track should be a high priority in addressing the dropout problem. The lack of non-college or vocational tracks has been shown to doom many students to failure, thus increasing the dropout rate (Bishop, 1988; Reynolds, 1986; Weber & Sechler, 1988).

Undiagnosed learning disabilities. Not all students who should be in special education are so placed. This, too, leads to frustration and to dropping out. Hahn (1987) reports that undiagnosed learning disabilities are linked to students dropping out of school. He points to estimates of the percentage of learning disabled students in the population which range from 5 to 10% for secondary students; yet less than 3% of this group are typically diagnosed by the schools. Slow learners or handicapped students whose problems are not dealt with face frustration and are top candidates for dropping out (Bull & Garrett, 1989). A recent study with rural special educators supports this reality, with 70% citing undiagnosed learning disabilities as a significant cause for students dropping out of school (Bull, Salyer & Montgomery, 1990).

Emotional problems. Hahn (1989) reports emotional problems as an additional cause of students dropping out of school. Typically schools underserve those with emotional problems due to lack of trained teachers or counselors. Helge (1990) asserts that students with serious emotional overlays are generally unable to focus on learning and therefore are at significant risk for aging out or dropping out of school.

The U.S. Department of Education (1987) reported that 29% of students with emotional disturbance problems were dropouts (Ninth Annual Report to Congress). This idea that special education students with emotional disturbances are more likely to be at risk of dropping out is supported by others (Edgar, 1987; Bruininks, Thurlow, Lewis & Larson, 1988; Bull, Salyer & Montgomery, 1990).

Being too different from peer group. Bull and Garrett (1989) suggest that when students are too different from their peer groups that dropping out is a very viable option. Special education students with physical handicaps see themselves as being too different from their peer groups and therefore they do not bond to the educational system and ultimately drop out. Specifically, Owings and Stocking (1986) report that 23% of orthopedically handicapped students drop out.

Chronic medical problems. Finally, there are children whose medical problems make it exceedingly difficult for them to complete high school. Some of these children are served in special education under the rubric of the physically handicapped. Others receive homebound services for chronic illness which usually preclude graduation with the peer group. In either case, the student with chronic medical problems is less likely to complete school than his/her less medically involved peers. This is particularly true in rural areas where service availability is typically restricted (Helge, 1990).

Method

Instrumentation

The instrument for this study was created by Bull, Salyer and Montgomery (1990). Each of the 42 variables or items on the instrument represented a possible cause for dropping out, withdrawing, grade retention, or leaving early that was reported in the educational/psychological literature. From this larger group of variables, nine were identified as being more closely aligned with special education clientele than with regular children and youth. They included specifically the following: frustration with school, medical problems, emotional problems, no hope of graduation, lack of non-college bound track, being in special classes, being too old for peer group, being too different from peer group, and undiagnosed learning disabilities.

When necessary or for clarity, the item was followed with a parenthetical explanation. For example, Item 2 read: Frustration (for slow or unserved, handicapped for whom education is too hard, instruction undifferentiated, teachers inflexible).

Participants responded to each item using a Likert-like five option scale ranging from "strongly agree" (1) to "strongly disagree" (5). The question stem asked to what extent they agreed that the item represented a national priority.

Subjects

The subjects were randomly selected principals (initial sample, N=650) and superintendents (N = 650) drawn from Patterson's American Education (Moody, 1989). Thirteen hundred questionnaires were distributed. To improve the return rate, two mail follow-ups were conducted. A total of 933 questionnaires were returned and of these 891 were usable which yielded a return rate of 71.8%.

The sample contained 752 males and 119 females. They averaged 10.7 years in administration and 12.3 years in teaching. In terms of education, 417 held BA/BS Degrees, 191 held MA/MS/MAT Degrees and 245 held Specialist or Ph.D./Ed.D Degrees. In terms of location, 398 were from rural schools, 189 from urban schools and 241 from suburban schools. Administrators reported their school socio-economic status as 19 upper class, 583 middle class and 121 lower class.

Data Analysis

Data analyses were conducted using SYSTAT (Wilkinson, 1987) and SPSS-X (1983) with default options, unless otherwise indicated.

Results

The nine special education items related to special education were initially subjected to chi-square analyses. The five-point Likert-like responses were collapsed into a three point scale for ease of reporting by combining "strongly agree" and "agree" and "strongly disagree" and "disagree" categories. This combination yielded an expected value for the chi-squares of 40%, 20% and 40%. The chi-square analyses, all significant at $P < .001$, are reported in Table 1.

When the data are examined, it is clear that administrators appear to be very clear on their priorities. High priority items are no hope of graduation and emotional problems. Median level priorities include frustration, being too old for peer group and untreated learning disability. Causal variables that are perceived as low priorities are medical problems, lack of non-college bound track, untreated learning disabilities, being in special classes and being too different from the peer group. These latter two are low priority mainly due to the uncertainty of the respondents.

To examine the differences by location (rural, urban and suburban), one-way analyses of variance were conducted on each of the 9 items. The one-way ANOVA's yielded three significant differences (with significant Tukey post hocs):

1) medical problems - Urban > Suburban;
2) No hope for graduation - Urban > Rural; and
3) Being too old for peer group - Urban > Suburban and Urban > Rural.

For each of these comparisons, urban administrators hold these items as a higher priority than do their identified counterparts. Table 2 summarizes these findings.

Discussion

The data indicate that administrators have a clear set of priorities when it comes to dealing with special education related causal variables for dropping out. They believe that no hope of graduating is the highest priority cause. We might speculate that this is because it reduces their control over the students. If a student has no hope, then what can an administrator do to coerce or entice the student into school conforming behaviors. The same might be inferred by the ranking of emotional problems as a priority. Students with emotional problems are not typically treatable and teachers are likely to send them to administrators; and administration may not be able to deal with them any better than the teachers.

Summarizing the results for the third priority, frustration, there is less agreement among respondents. It is still clear that two-thirds of the respondent see this as an area that should be worked on. It is feasible to believe that dealing with frustration is something that administrators could work on if they so desired. It seems reasonable to assume that appropriate programming and curriculum diversification are possible in any district if deemed a high priority. And appropriate programming and curriculum diversification are possible solutions to the frustration experienced by special education students.

It is interesting that the remaining items are seen as priorities by less than fifty percent of the administrators. This reinforces the results of other studies which show that the focus of dropout remediation is not on the special needs of special education students and may well be of no benefit to these individuals.

When we examine the data by location, they show that urban administrators hold higher priorities than rural and suburban administrators on causes related to special education dropouts. This may be due to a higher prevalence of special education students in urban schools. The higher prevalence rate is possibly due to better identification practices or it may be that rural administrators are more conservative. A conservative assumption is that rural administrators better control their schools and have fewer dropouts as a result. Another less appealing yet plausible assumption may be that rural administrators lack interest in retaining expensive special education students in their rural elementary and secondary schools.

The literature clearly indicates that special education students drop out of school at an unacceptable rate nationally. Clearly, a goal for those of us in the field of special education who be to reduce the dropout rates of our students. From these data, it would seem likely that special education students will be over represented in the population of dropouts. However, one hope to reverse this trend is for administrators to change their priorities or remediate the causes of dropping out.

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Table 1

Chi-Square Analyses of responses to the question: Should this cause of dropping out be a national priority?

Item Expected value	% Agreement	Cases (40)	 (20)	 (40)	N	Chi-Square*
Frustration	68.7	587	70	197	855	240.00
Medical problems	15.5	132	141	580	853	300.53
Emotional problems	82.1	705	66	88	859	635.42
No hope of graduation	86.9	740	33	79	852	779.51
Lack of non-college bound track	32.5	275	71	501	847	146.83
Being in special classes	32.4	274	203	369	846	21.78
Being too old for peer group	43.1	366	124	359	849	15.51
Being too different from peer group	25.1	213	202	431	847	78.62
Undiagnosed learning disabilities	42.1	356	92	398	846	46.64

* = All chi-squares significant at .001

Table 2

Significant Analyses of Variance Comparisons by Location* of Responses to the Question: Should this possible cause of dropping out be a national priority?

Item	U/S	U/R	S/U	S/R	R/U	R/S**
Medical Problems		X				
No hope for graduation		X				
Being too old for peer group	X	X				

* Significant comparisons also had significant Tukey post hocs.

** U/S = Urban > Suburban
U/R = Urban > Rural
S/U = Suburban > Urban
S/R = Suburban > Rural
R/U = Rural > Urban
R/S = Rural > Suburban

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Sonya C. Carr
Co-Presenter: Elizabeth Evans
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

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Rural Special Education Teacher Training: Promoting Self-Control in Students with Mild/Moderate Disabilities

Louisiana, along with other southern states, is experiencing a critical shortage of qualified special educators, particularly in rural areas. Some factors contributing to this shortage in Louisiana include low teacher salaries, the reduction of the availability of tuition exemption for teachers taking college level courses for certification, and higher tuition costs. In an effort to increase the number of certified special education teachers, the Louisiana Board of Elementary and Secondary Education reduced the number of courses that teachers holding certification in elementary or secondary education must take to be certified in special education. Thus, courses selected for the revised certification reflect the current need to move "certified" personnel into the classroom as quickly as possible regardless of the quality of the preservice training program. The courses selected for the program of study reflect minimal competencies and do not address the "state of the art" in special education today.

Given the regional economic circumstances and the critical shortage of qualified special education teachers, there appears to be little possibility that additional requirements will be included for certification to ensure quality training that does more than address minimal competencies. In a desperate attempt to increase the teacher pool, quality training has been sacrificed for expediency.

The faculty of the special education department at Southeastern Louisiana University (SLU) have attempted to provide the best teacher training possible given the circumstances described. SLU's service area includes a large number of rural parish residents. Of the 14 parishes (counties) served by the university, seven are designated as rural. Within this seven parish area recruitment and retention of qualified special educators has been difficult due to low teacher salaries and unique community characteristics which have created demanding teaching situations. The lack of special educators documented in the most recent Louisiana Comprehensive System of Personnel Development report and the complex community characteristics have resulted in rural areas which have a critical need for qualified special educators.

To ascertain training needs of rural special educators in Louisiana, personnel from a federally funded rural training project in the Department of Special Education at SLU surveyed 117 special educators around the state (Reiff & Anderson, 1989). A needs assessment instrument was used to delineate the most important competencies in training programs for rural special educators. Two of the top five competencies focused on "generic/noncategorical approaches to teaching rural exceptional children" and "working with a wide diversity of handicapping conditions." Often special educators in rural areas are required to work with diverse groups of students without support. Students with low incidence handicaps may be served in these classes, and it is not unusual for some teachers in rural parishes to work with groups of students with a six-year age span. Therefore, a need for generic techniques that teachers can use with diverse groups of students with disabilities has been demonstrated.

In response to these needs, the faculty at SLU are available to local parishes to provide inservice training, and present at the annual state conference for special educators. In recent years the significant increase of teacher and principal attendance at workshops offered in the discipline/behavior strand, has demonstrated this particular need. In addition, it is not unusual for teachers to contact department faculty members to request help with difficult student behaviors in their special education classes.

Thus, within the department, means were sought to expand teachers' knowledge base with regard to behavior management procedures and alternatives. It was observed that teachers rely primarily on teacher-directed (external) behavior control. However, several researchers and theorists have cautioned special educators about the tendency to rely solely on behavior modification techniques for students with disabilities (e.g., Rooney & Hallahan, 1985). It has been noted that students, who have been trained to rely on externally imposed controls in special education classes, often experience behavioral difficulties when mainstreamed to regular classes. Thus, there is a need to help students move away from reliance on external behavior controls. However, many teachers have not been trained in the use of techniques which may help students learn to self-regulate their behavior. These techniques may include self-instruction, self-evaluation, self-recording, and self-reinforcement.

After a complete survey of the literature, an effort was made to develop a set of self-management procedures demonstrated to be effective for students with a variety of learning and/or behavior problems. In addition, it was determined that procedures selected must be cost-effective in terms of time and expense, and easily taught to interested teachers, given barriers related to scheduling and distances (campus to school). Two sets of procedures, a self-monitoring procedure (combining self-recording and self-evaluation

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techniques) based on the work of Hallahan and colleagues and a self-evaluation procedure based on the work of Rhode, Smith and colleagues were selected for further investigation.

The self-monitoring of attention studies conducted by Hallahan and colleagues at the University of Virginia are of particular interest because these researchers have validated a procedure which has been demonstrated to result in increased on-task behavior and some improvement in academic productivity for children with learning disabilities (e.g., Hallahan & Sapona, 1983; Kneedler & Hallahan, 1981). These techniques have been demonstrated to be effective with high school students with mild disabilities (Blick & Test, 1987), average ability children with learning disabilities (Hallahan, Lloyd, Kosiewicz, Kauffman, & Graves, 1979; Harris, 1986), and low IQ children with learning disabilities (Rooney, Polloway, & Hallahan, 1985).

Conclusions resulting from this work include: Self-monitoring of attention leads to increased on-task behavior and some increase in academic productivity, cues are needed to prompt students, self-recording is a necessary component, and back-up reinforcers are not necessary. This procedure is recommended for use with seatwork when students are in the early stages of practicing skills, rather than for new learning tasks (Hallahan & Sapona, 1983).

These procedures have been demonstrated to increase on-task behavior for many students with mild disabilities. However, often teachers are seeking techniques which will provide more comprehensive assistance for problems extending beyond the limits of on-task behavior. Thus, another self-management procedure, self-evaluation, was explored as a possible alternative for these teachers.

Rhode, Morgan, and Young (1983) reported on the use of a self-evaluation procedure with elementary school students with behavior disorders. These researchers found that they could teach students to evaluate their own classroom behavior using the same rating scale as the teacher in resource classes, and that eventually this procedure could be successfully transferred to other settings. While Hallahan and colleagues targeted on-task behavior, these researchers focused on a set of inappropriate school behaviors which included "high rates of disruptive classroom behavior most of the time, refusal to work and complete assigned tasks, frequent inappropriate talking in class, frequent out-of-seat occurrences, noncompliance with teacher requests, aggression toward peers, bizarre talk, and daydreaming" (Rhode et al., 1983, p. 173).

The self-evaluation procedure involves a clearly delineated set of classroom rules, a cue to self-evaluate behavior, a student/teacher matching system, and an exchange of points for back-up reinforcers. Rhode et al. reported that student behavior improved with the self-evaluation training and transferred to other

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settings. The effectiveness of this procedure has also been demonstrated with children and youth with behavior disorders in rural settings (Smith, Nelson, & Young, 1988).

Field Test Results

These procedures were field tested with students enrolled in a self-contained/resource class in an elementary school in a rural parish (Carr & Sawyer, 1991). The students (n=24, Gds. 3-5) were classified as learning disabled (LD) according to the guidelines of the State of Louisiana (Bulletin 1508, 1986). All students in the class exhibited off-task behavior, particularly during independent seat work activities. The teacher reported that these behaviors interfered with academic performance and presented on-going management problems in the classroom.

The Placheck Recording System (Tawney & Gast, 1984) was used to collect data on occurrence/nonoccurrence of on-task behavior during baseline. On-task behavior was defined as the student at his/her seat working quietly with eyes focused on the page or pencil in hand, the student enroute to a materials station, the student listening to teacher instructions, or the student asking a question of the teacher or aide. Immediately following baseline all students were taught to self-monitor using techniques described by Hallahan et al., (1979). The self-monitoring procedure was found to result in an increase in the amount of time students spent on-task. Baseline was then re-established and a second intervention was implemented.

The second intervention involved training the same students in the use of a self-evaluation procedure based on the work of Rhode et al. (1983) and Smith et al. (1988). For this intervention, students were trained to compare and rate their behavior on the basis of compliance with class rules. This self-evaluation intervention was demonstrated to be more effective with the students. This particular group of students appeared to respond more favorably to the feedback and praise involved in the matching system and seemed motivated by the use of back-up reinforcers. Teachers and students indicated a preference for the self-evaluation intervention.

In the field test students appeared to benefit from additional training, including more clearly defined and illustrated class rules and the student/teacher matching system. Thus, the effectiveness of the self-evaluation procedure, as developed by Rhode, Smith and colleagues, provides evidence to suggest that some students may benefit from additional training, over a substantially longer practice period, with back-up reinforcers, praise, and feedback.

Teacher Training

Training materials were then developed to provide teachers with strategies to teach students to self-monitor or self-evaluate while completing seatwork in the special education classroom. The training materials included an audiotape and a teacher's manual to accompany the tape. The audiotape included instructions which described how to collect baseline data, explained behavior modification and cognitive behavior modification, provided a rationale for the effectiveness of self-management techniques with children with learning and/or behavior problems, and described the actual training procedures. A decision was made to use a tape to ensure consistency in implementation of interventions, and to provide accessibility for teachers residing in rural areas. These teachers often had difficulty reaching the university on a regular basis. Thus, the training packet could be used independently and was readily available to interested teachers.

Student Training Procedures

Training steps used to teach students a self-management procedure typically include the following: define and give examples of the target behavior(s), provide a rationale to the student for using the procedure, demonstrate and model the procedure, and provide practice. Teachers involved in this project were instructed in self-management training procedures as established by Hallahan et al. (1979) and Smith et al. (1988).

Teachers were instructed to follow training procedures for either of the two interventions (self-monitoring of attention or self-evaluation) with two modifications. First, each of the interventions requires a brief initial training session prior to implementation of the intervention. Occasional review of the self-management procedures is recommended following breaks in school routine. Teachers in the project were encouraged to involve students in more extensive training using practice with prompts, corrective feedback, and praise over several days prior to implementation of the procedure. It also seemed essential that students receive explicit definitions and examples of the target behavior(s).

Second, teachers were encouraged to use graphs to display student behavior. Graphs can be used as a means of communicating intervention effects and providing feedback to the student and teacher. For the self-monitoring intervention, it was recommended that teachers report percentage of intervals on-task during a class period using bar graphs or line graphs for the data display. For the self-evaluation intervention, it was recommended that teachers report the number of points students earned during a class period, again using bar or line graphs for the data display of student behavior. Teachers were also encouraged to collect and graph data regarding student productivity during class periods in which the intervention was in effect.

Conclusion

Training in a broad array of behavior management techniques is essential for rural special educators. It seems particularly important that these special educators be trained in alternatives to traditional behavior modification methods. However, many of these special educators are unaware of research and practice guided by developments in the field of cognitive behavior modification. Rural teachers in this project were trained in the use of two self-management procedures, a self-monitoring intervention and a self-evaluation intervention, which have been demonstrated to be effective with students with a variety of learning and/or behavior problems.

These procedures can be used to teach students to become effective modifiers of their own behavior and thus gain self-control. In implementing these procedures teachers generally became aware of several advantages in the transfer of responsibility for behavior management from the teacher to the student and thus were more likely to actually use these procedures in the classroom.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Gerald D. Wright
Co-Presenter: Joseph F. Ryan
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

REACHING OUR POTENTIAL:

RURAL EDUCATION IN THE 90'S

Stress Among Rural Special Education Teachers
in
Northwest Missouri

a

Poster Presentation

National Rural and Small Schools Consortium

Annual Meeting

Nashville Tennessee

March 17 - 20, 1991

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Many special education teachers experience high levels of stress making them likely candidates for burnout. Frustration, mental exhaustion, excess worry, pressure, depression, and anxiety are common emotional manifestations of stress (Fimian & Santoro, 1983). Some teachers are convinced stress is an unavoidable part of their jobs as special educators (Shea, 1990). In her 1990 study, Shea found nine main work tasks that led to emotional exhaustion in Learning Disabilities (LD) teachers:

1) Assessment
2) Assessment write-ups
3) Balance of grouping vs individualization of instruction
4) Dividing time between severe and mild cases
5) Parental support for solving problems
6) Administration support for scheduling priorities
7) Administrative support for discipline
8) Finding a colleague with when to discuss ideas.
9) Providing encouragement to classroom teachers with mainstreaming.

According to Fimran and Santoro (1983), highly stressed teachers reported more frequent and stronger sources of stress than did all other teachers. Shea (1990), who measured teachers' emotional exhaustion near the end of the school year, found teaching experience rather than increasing age related to lower intensities of emotional exhaustion. The end of the school year causes many teachers to feel stressed or burned out without extreme stressors. To generalize her results to other times of the year would be inappropriate. Foxworth, Karnes and Leonard (1984) used the Teacher Occupational Stress Factor Questionnaire (TOSFQ) to reveal four significant stress factors in teachers:

1) Relationships with teachers;
2) Work and Compensation;
3) Working with students;
4) Perceptions of respect from peers (teachers, administrators).

Burnout is a syndrome of emotional and physical exhaustion characterized by negative and cynical attitudes toward students, and a general feeling of unhappiness regarding accomplishments on the job; ultimately, teachers respond by leaving the teaching profession (Johnson, Gold and Vickers, 1982). Exacerbation of the burnout problem is the major concern of administrators in rural states in keeping special education teachers in special education classrooms (Lombardi & Donaldson, 1987). Unfortunately, little information exists which deals specifically with stress and burnout in these special teachers (Shea, 1990).

Subjects. The sample for this study consisted of 297 special education teachers from the state roster of special education personnel in a 19 county area of Northwest Missouri. Of the 297 respondents, 16 were from schools with fewer than 300 students, 38 were from schools with 300 to 700 students, and 243 were from schools with over 700 students.

Variables. The dependent variables were the 27 tasks often performed by special education teachers and utilized Likert - type ratings of the degree of stress as reported by special education teachers. Data concerning a number of background independent personal and professional variables were also collected.

Instrumentation. The two - page survey instrument was composed of 10 independent variables and 27 dependent variables composed of duties or responsibilities frequently performed by special education teachers.

The 27 dependent variables were those duties or responsibilities reported by graduate special education teachers attending summer school at Northwest Missouri State University during the summers of 1988, 1989, and 1990.

Procedure. Six-hundred questionnaires were mailed during the first week of November. Of these, 297 (49.5%) were returned on or before December 21, 1990. All surveys returned by special education teachers were used in the analysis.

The results are reported in intervals of ten and by the size of school in regard to their responses of little or no stress on each of the 27 dependent variables. The responses indicate that of the 297 special teachers surveyed in the three different school sizes, the majority of special education teachers reported little or no occupational stress. There were only 13 responses below the 70% little or no stress level. There were no dependent variables with a majority of the responses in the moderate to high stress range.

The three dependent variables reporting the greatest stress were: "Writing IEPs" (118 moderate to high stress responses); "Meeting special education due process requirements" (116 moderate to high stress responses); and Disciplining students (114 moderate to high stress responses). No other dependent variables recorded more than one-third of the responses in the moderate to high stress category.

Conclusions

The data do not support two commonly held concepts regarding occupational stress among special education teachers: First, it appears that most special education teachers perceive little or no stress in the duties normally associated with their occupation; second, special education teachers in small (under 300 student), rural schools perceive their jobs as being less stressful than colleagues in larger, less rural schools. Data were not acquired from regular education teachers in the same school districts; therefore, no conclusions can be drawn as to whether special educators perceived their jobs as more stressful or less stressful than regular education teachers.

The survey was completed during the fall semester when one might expect that more teachers would report the least occupational stress. Plans are to identify a similar population of special education teachers and administer the survey in April 1991.

The data from this study do not support the concept that special education teachers in small, rural schools perceive more occupational stress than their colleagues in larger, less rural schools. The data do not support the commonly held concept that special education teachers perceive their jobs to be moderately to highly stressful.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Kathleen S. Baysinger
Co-Presenter: Theresa M. Robinson
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

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NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION ASSESSMENT CHECKLIST

Augmentative/Alternative Communication Systems have been used in various forms by Speech-Language Pathologists for decades. The evaluation were initially subjective and restricted in content due to limited types of augmentative systems available. As technology increased and system use was more readily acceptable in society, more Augmenative Alternative Communication assessments were necessary. However, as the demand for technology increased, the number of formal assessment tool publications for usage or purchase has not increased accordingly.

Many assessment tools currently in use in the augmentative/alternative communication community, such as the SINC by Bristow and Fristoe (1982) and Goosens and Crain (1986) Resource Book, are difficult to purchase and are not easily accessible to most clinic and school Speech-Language Pathologist's. The majority of Augmentative Alternative Communication evaluations being used include such tasks as video taping the client, long protocol or complicated forms for use during the evaluation. Schurman (1974) indicated that many areas of abilities must be focused on during the Augmentative Alternative Communication assessment, as motor and visual skills, coordination, pointing abilities and endurance. To evaluate communicative interaction, Kraat (1986) has developed a comprehensive discussion and a composite list of behaviors for use when examining augmentative usage and partner behaviors. Fried-Oken, Howard, and Prillwitz (1987), address cause and effect aspects of Augmentative Alternative Communication evaluations and state that when a child is not "ready" for an augmentative system, they may be able to activate a single switch to control a toy or environmental control unit, and can be used to train the child for a system.

By developing the two page Non-Verbal Communication Checklist, Speech-Language Pathologist's, Special Education teachers, Occupational Therapists, Physical Therapists, and Augmentative Communication Educators are able to appraise various aspects of non-verbal behaviors of clients by utilizing this functional, comprehensive, and cost effective evaluation tool. Specific areas of Receptive Language Abilities, Cause/Effect, Present Communication Modes, Visual/Motor Skills, Device/Systems, are assessed and rated in relation to the client's non-verbal abilities. After trials with various electronic, cause/effect, and communication board systems, realistic goals are outlined for implementation and carryover by the involved school professionals. The results of this cost effective checklist are available immediately for initiation by the client's Speech-Language Pathologist, preschool/school staff, work site supervisor, and family/caregivers.

The checklist incorporates important client centered characteristics as Intent, Support, and Present Level of Communication Performance, to provide functional information for the implementation of the plan. This assessment tool has been utilized with adults and children with varying medical disorders as mental retardation, cerebral palsy, autism, head injury, various neurogenic disorders and delayed development in a hospital out-patient speech therapy clinic and satellite child/adult facilities. It has been developed for school therapists working in clinical and school settings.

This checklist provides the professionals with a specific non-verbal communication assessment tool to complete thorough evaluations in rural areas where access to a formal augmentative evaluation team may be limited. Functional and realistic goals, ranging from cause/effect stimulation, to development of specific traditional and electronic communication boards, are addressed and developed from the results for immediate implementation.

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NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION ASSESSMENT CHECKLIST

APPRAISAL AREAS

I. LANGUAGE

- A. RECEPTIVE ABILITIES

  Understanding of pictures, words, simple directions, environmental cues, letters, spelling, symbols, cause/effect; Auditory Attention

- B. CURRENT MODE OF EXPRESSION

  Eyeblinks, eyegaze, head shakes (yes/no), signing, writing, verbalizations, self attainment of needs

- C. INITIATES COMMUNICATION

II. VISION

Vertical/horizontal tracking, attention, recognition of objects, pictures, words

III. POSTURE/MOTOR CONTROL

Seating, head control, arm finger, leg movement, movement repetition without fatigue

IV. DEVICES

- A. SYSTEM

  Eye gaze board, point to item communication board, signing, writing, electronic devices, type/basic needs (itemized), grid number, size

- B. PORTABILITY
- C. INTENT
- D. OPPORTUNITY
- E. SUPPORT

V. PRESENT LEVEL OF COMMUNICATION PERFORMANCE

VI. RECOMMENDED PLAN OF TREATMENT

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Michael E. Sullivan
Co-Presenter: Paul A. LEary
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

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PERCEPTIONS OF RURAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS OF THE ROLE AND FUNCTION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS

PERCEPTIONS OF RURAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS OF THE ROLE AND FUNCTION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS

Problems rural school administrators face differ from those of urban and suburban school administrators (DeYoung, 1987; Marshall, 1984; Massey & Crosby, 1983; Sher, 1983b: Traugh, 1984). Many of these differences thwart the effectiveness of rural school personnel including the special education administrator. School systems in West Virginia, like schools in many rural areas, typically are characterized by relatively small size and by physical and cultural isolation (Massey & Crosby, 1983). To analyze the position of rural school system special education administrator, in an isolated setting with limited human and material resources, we must examine the perceptions of key school administrators regarding that role and function.

According to a survey of the Education Commission of the States in 1974, special education was perceived by governors to be the number one challenge to states (Davis, 1979). Since that survey, rapid growth and sweeping changes in special education have come into being largely as a result of the passage of a major federal law, P.L. 94-142, in 1975. A variety of organizational and administrative problems arose with the adoption of Public Law 94-142, the implementing regulations of Section 504 of the Vocational Rehabilitation act of 1973, and the ever-expanding volume of court cases supporting the rights of the handicapped (Lilly, 1979; Blackhurst and Berdine, 1981). Into this maze of problems entered the special education administrator, a professional educator who had been relatively unknown but whose importance has increased dramatically. Kohl and Marro have written:

> If what is known about organization in general holds true in special education, and there is no reason to believe it does not, the central position around which organizational concerns revolve is that of administration of special education. This person, more than any other, will be involved either directly or indirectly in decisions that affect the lives of millions of people, the spending of billions of dollars, and the organization, administration, and supervision of thousands of programs for students with disabilities (1970:2).

Recognizing the complexities of this position and the level of skills needed, Jones and Wilkerson (1975) observed that the special education administrator is one of the few administrative personnel in the schools who has true K-12 responsibility. Gearheart (1967) wrote that a special education administrator is obviously a key person in the special education unit. Forgnone and Collings (1975) acknowledged the demand for special education administrators to direct special education programs. They stated that, as special education grows and becomes more complex, the need for leadership becomes imperative. Kern and Mayer (1970) noted the growing complexity of special education and wrote:

> It has become apparent that the complexity of special education demands the leadership of a well-trained, highly qualified professional who is a "specialist" but who must have a wide background of training and expertise in many exceptionalities (p. 128).

Evidence suggests that the role of the special education administrator is still evolving. Even prior to the passage of Public Law 94-142 in 1975, researchers began to suggest that the special education administrator's role needed to reflect that of facilitator, innovator and implementor to accommodate new and increasing demands. These circumstances suggest the potential for conflict caused by role ambiguity and, as such, may reduce the effectiveness of the delivery of services to exceptional students in rural school settings. A number of studies have explored the relationships between role, expectations, and conflict (Getzels and Guba, 1954; Merton, 1957; Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1958; Getzels, Lipham and Campbell, 1968). More recently, Sergiovanni and Carver (1980), Crossland, Fox and Baker (1982, and Sullivan (1986) have explored the same relationships as they related to special education administrator behaviors.

As rural school systems strive to achieve organizational goals, few would question the vital role played by the administrator of special education in this relatively new field. Yet, there appear to be inconsistencies and inconclusiveness concerning the special education administrator's role. Research to clarify this issue has been both minimal and conflicting.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the expectations held by key administrative personnel within West Virginia's rural school systems with respect to the role of the special education administrator. Specifically, what were the existing differences, if any, of perceptions among and within groups of superintendents, principals and special education administrators of the role expectations for the special education administrator in rural school systems in West Virginia? Seven functional areas of administration containing forteen specific tasks (Figure 1) were examined in order to identify potential areas of conflict among and between key rural school system administrators. The responses analyzed were related to both the perceived performance and the perceived importance of these specific tasks.

The specific objective of the study was to generate information which would clarify the following:

1. The relationship between the perceptions of special education administrators and those of principals regarding the role of the special education administrator.

FIGURE I

Administrative Functions - Defined by Specific Tasks

PLANNING	ORGANIZING	STAFFING	DIRECTING	COORDINATING	REPORTING	BUDGETING
1. Developing policies (i.e. identification, placement, transfer)	1. Establishing channels of communication and responsibility	1. Recruitment of special education teachers	1. Placement of children in special classes	1. Integrating special education with entire school program	1. Completion of state forms	1. Preparation of the budget
2. Establishing special education programs	2. Preparing schedules for special education teachers	2. Assistance in the screening of special education teachers	2. Transportation schedules for exceptional children	2. Cooperating and communicating with school personnel	2. Pupil accounting and records	2. Presentation of budget requests
3. Surveying the district for handicapped and gifted students.	3. Placement of special classes within school buildings	3. Selection of special education teachers	3. Planning in-service meetings, workshops, etc.	3. Communicating with parents and the public	3. Teacher accounting	3. Administering the budget
4. Planning and providing facilities	4. Establishing psychological procedures for identifying handicapped and gifted students	4. Assignment of special education teachers	4. Conducting research with exceptional children	4. Utilizing services of community agencies	4. Disseminating research findings	4. Keeping school personnel informed of budget limits
5. Planning and providing special equipment and special instructional materials	5. Establishing communication with entire school staff concerning referral and diagnostic procedures	5. Evaluation of special education teachers	5. Directing in-service meetings, workshops, etc.	5. Utilizing state department personnel as resources	5. Periodic publications made available to parents and the public	
6. Curriculum planning and development		6. Building and maintaining special education staff morale	6. Re-evaluation of exceptional children	6. Communicating with board of education concerning special education program		
		7. Securing consultant services for the staff	7. Providing counseling and guidance services for exceptional children			

2. The relationship between the perceptions of special education administrators and those of superintendents regarding the role of the special education administrator.

Procedures

Three groups of West Virginia county school system administrators were chosen to participate in the study. The first group consisted of all fifty-five county superintendents of schools. The second group consisted of all fifty-five individuals identified as county special education administrators. The third group involved a randomly selected sample (N=150) of the state's public school principals.

A demographic questionnaire and a survey instrument were mailed to each participant in the study. The survey instrument consisted of 40 specific tasks organized and assigned to seven types of administrative activity. After all follow-up procedures were completed, forty (72.73 percent) superintendents, fifty-five (100 percent) special education administrators and 107 (71.33 percent) principals returned the questionnaire. Of the 260 individuals surveyed. a total of 202 (77.69 percent) responses were received.

Data generated by the study were assigned response codes, arrayed and processed by using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test all hypotheses. An alpha level of .05 was the criterion used to reject the null hypotheses. In instances where the null hypothesis was rejected, the Scheffe' method of multiple comparisons was used for post hoc analysis. Because the Scheffe' is a very conservative test, it failed to identify statistically significant differences in some cases even though the ANOVA did indicate that differences existed. In these instances, the Duncan Multiple Range Test was applied to pinpoint existing differences.

Major Findings

Analyses of the survey instrument data generated by this investigation have enabled a number of major findings to be identified:

1. There were significant (.05 level) differences among or between the subject groups regarding the perceived performance of twenty-one of the forty tasks contained in the instrument.

2. There were significant differences (.05 level) between special education administrators and principals regarding the perceived performance of nineteen of the forty tasks contained in the instrument.

3. There were significant differences (.05 level) between special education administrators and superintendents regarding the perceived performance of two of the forty tasks contained in the instrument.

4. There were significant differences (.05 level) between principals and superintendents regarding the perceived performance of two of the forty tasks contained in the instrument.

5. There were significant (.05 level) differences among or between the three groups regarding the perceived degree of importance assigned to eighteen of the forty tasks contained in the instrument.

6. There were significant (.05 level) differences between special education administrators and principals regarding the perceived degree of importance assigned to seventeen of the forty tasks contained in the instrument.

7. There were significant (.05 level) differences between special education administrators and superintendents regarding the perceived degree of importance assigned to one of the forty tasks contained in the instrument.

8. There were significant (.05 level) differences between principals and superintendents regarding the perceived degree of importance assigned to three of the forty tasks contained in the instrument.

Discussion

An analysis of the data indicated the potential for conflict among or between the three respondent groups. On the average, the three groups surveyed perceived that thirty-two of the forty tasks contained in the instrument fell within the Important - Very Important range. Further analysis also revealed that, on the average, the three groups felt that thirty-four of the forty tasks were being performed. The only task perceived to be of both little importance and also perceived as not being performed was found within the Directing function. This task was entitled Conducting Research with Exceptional Children. This result verified a similar finding in a previous study by Mazor (1977). However, this finding also contradicted that of an earlier study by Loe and Becker (1975) who reported that special education administrators indicated a strong interest in this type of research.

Post hoc analysis indicated significant (.05 level) differences between special education administrators and superintendents on only two performance-related items. They were: (1) Surveying the District for Handicapped and Gifted Students and (2) Establishing Communication with Entire School Staff Concerning Referral and Diagnostic Procedures. Further analysis indicated significant (.05 level) differences between these two groups regarding perception of importance of task on only one item (Cooperating and Communicating With School Personnel). This finding does not support the study results reported by White (1969) who found many differences of opinion between these two groups. However, this investigation does support the results of studies reported by Hill (1967) and Mazor (1977) who found very little disagreement between superintendents and special education administrators regarding the special education administrator's role.

Post hoc analyses also pinpointed significant (.05 level) differences between principals and superintendents on two performance-related tasks. They were: (1) Planning and Providing Facilities and (2) Integrating Special Education With Entire School Program. Additional analysis indicated significant (.05 level) differences between the two groups regarding perception of importance of three tasks. They were: (1) Developing Policies, (2) Surveying the District for Handicapped and Gifted Students, and (3) Preparation of the Budget. The fact that there were no significant (.05 level) differences between principals and superintendents on thirty-five of forty tasks would generally support the research conducted by Mallek (1970) which indicated similar concordance.

The pairing which may be the major source of potential conflict, because of the number of tasks in which significant (.05 level) differences were found, is that of special education administrator and principal. Post hoc analyses revealed that significant (.05 level) differences of perception regarding performance occurred between these two groups on nineteen of the forty tasks. Further analysis indicated that significant (.05 level) differences of perception regarding degree of importance occurred between the two groups on seventeen of forty tasks. Furthermore, significant (.05 level) differences regarding both perceived performance and perceived degree of importance occurred between the two groups on ten of forty tasks. These ten tasks were:

1. Developing policies (i.e. identification, placement, transfer)
2. Establishing special education programs
3. Curriculum planning and development
4. Establishing channels of communication and responsibility
5. Integrating special education with entire school program
6. Communicating with parents and the public
7. Utilizing resources of community agencies
8. Utilizing state department personnel as resources
9. Preparation of the budget
10. Presentation of budget requests

Generally, these findings support those results presented in similar studies conducted by Carter and Brooks (1974) and Mazor (1977).

Conclusions

A number of major conclusions may be drawn from the analyses of the data generated by the demographic sheet and the survey. They include the following:

1. It may be concluded that each of the three groups of administrators contained a number of individuals who had no teaching experience.
2. It may be concluded that superintendents occupy their present position for a shorter period on the average than do special education administrators and principals.
3. It may be concluded that wide variations exist among the three groups of administrators regarding both formal education administration and special education-related coursework.
4. It may be concluded that the pairing which may be the major source of potential conflict, because of the greatest number of tasks in which significant (.05 level) differences were found, is that of special education administrator and principal.
5. It may be concluded that the ten tasks representing potential conflict on both the perceived performance and degree of importance dimensions are representative of only four administrative functions. Those functions include Planning, Organizing, Coordinating and Budgeting.

Implications

The study described one model for assessing potential areas of conflict among or between rural special education administrators, superintendents, and principals. The fact that the potential for conflict exists should not lead to the assumption that this conflict does indeed occur. The study does, however, provide a starting point for identifying the role which the special education administrator plays in delivering educational programs to exceptional students in rural school systems in West Virginia.

It may be speculated that the lack of formal special education or education administration-related training may contribute to a certain ignorance of the delivery process which in turn results in the potential for conflict identified in the study. Similarly, the fact that a surprising number of each of the three groups of administrators had never taught might also account for some of the potential for conflict. Both circumstances have profound implications if a specialized administrative endorsement for this role eventually emerges.

It is interesting to note that the greatest potential for conflict exists between the special education administrator and principal. As such, actual conflict may occur primarily at the program implementation level. A closer examination of those tasks most representative of actual implementation might be most beneficial in determining whether the potential for conflict is actually realized.

A portion of the potential conflict identified in the study may be more directly related to the organizational relationships which exist among the three positions rather than the fact that the role examined was related to special education. A question which might be legitimately asked is whether or not the special education administrator is primarily a line or staff position.

A related issue may have implications for this and similar studies. That issue revolves around the fact that as special education has grown, it has developed a form of separateness typified by differential funding structures and staffing patterns. This isolation may contribute to some of the differing perceptions identified in the study.

Perhaps the broadest implication of the potential for conflict identified in the study is that if a common perception of the role of the special education administrator does not exist among key administrators, actual conflict may result. This conflict might then cause dissatisfaction among those involved resulting in a reduction in efficiency and effectiveness in meeting mandates for the provision of services to special needs children.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Kay S. Bull
Co-Presenter: Diane Montgomery
B. Keith Salyer
Adrienne Hyle
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

Kay S. Bull
Diane Montgomery
Adrienne E. Hyle
B. Keith Salyer

MINORITY DROPOUTS:

Do Rural, Urban and Suburban Administrators Perceive Causes Affecting Minorities as Priority Items?

Abstract

Leaving school early is occurring at a high rate for students who are ethnically or culturally diverse. Some of the generalized difficulties in schools, at home or with peers that contribute to increased dropout rates for all students appear to particularly affect minority students. This study compared the responses of a national sample of urban, suburban and rural administrators (N=891) to the priority rankings of causal dropout variables related to minorities. Results indicate causal variables related to minorities rate low in priority, particularly for administrators in rural areas. Given the resulting priority rankings, a change in minority dropout status would be slow at best.

MINORITY DROPOUTS:
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Students choose not to complete high school at an alarming rate. In fact, about 25% of America students fail to complete twelve years of education (Wolman, Bruininks & Thurlow, 1989). A variety of causes have been hypothesized and studied as the reason for such a calamity. Some believe that fault is rooted in the school, others in the parents, or in the peer group or in the children themselves.

There may also be differences between the experiences of rural and urban dropouts. While neither are exempt from the dropout dilemma, Pallas (1987) shows that urban students drop out more frequently then other students. At the same time, it is also estimated that 25% of rural students quit school before graduation (Helge, 1989). Yet, rural educators claim that a rural education is different, better than in the more crowded and congested urban areas, with fewer problems leading students to drop out (Pallas, 1987). Rural educators also cite the seminal study of Barker and Grump (1964) to show that students attending rural schools have more roles to play and therefore more bonding occurs with less alienation and anomie.

Whether the students are in rural or urban settings, minority students are more likely to drop out than are their white, middle class peers. Many minority students believe that they will not complete high school (Hammond & Howard, 1986). This is particularly true of American Indian and Hispanic youth. Many studies show that minority students are proportionally overrepresented in the dropout statistics (California Dropouts, 1986; Center for Education Statistics, 1987; Ekstrom, Goertz, Pollack & Rock, 1986; Rumberger, 1987; Stephenson, 1985). In fact, as many as 56% of a school minority population drop out of school before graduation (Hahn, 1987).

The purpose of the present study was to examine the perspectives of administrators concerning the priority of causal variables contributing to minority students dropping out of school. Within school districts nationally, the individuals who can and do establish dropout prevention programs are the administrators. Conventional wisdom would indicate that their views about the priority of causes of dropping out might provide insight into the adoption of future prevention strategies and their impact upon minority student populations. Specifically, the questions posed in this study were:

(1) Do administrators prioritize causes of dropping out related to minority students as highly as other causes, and
(2) Does the administrator's rural, urban or suburban location influence the way in which they prioritize dropout causes?

Minority causes for dropping out

A review of the current research literature identified several causes of dropping out which seem to be specifically related to minority students in public education. They include no hope of graduating, lack of appropriate role models, personal or cultural dehumanization, feelings of discrimination, peer violence, lack of support for education from the cultural community, no peer support to continue in school and family problems or situations, such as poverty or migrant work.

No hope of graduating. Students who have little hope of graduating because they have been retained one or more years or because they have failed too many classes are likely dropout candidates (Hess & Lauber, 1985; Ekstrom et al., 1986; Widman & Hoisden, 1988). Numerous reports from minority dense school districts indicate that minority students, such as blacks or Hispanics, are retained more often and fail more classes than their non-minority counterparts (Fennimore, 1989).

Overall, 18% of students reported in the teacher survey of the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (Russo, 1988) had repeated one grade and 2% had repeated two or more grades. Those most likely to repeat a grade are of low socioeconomic status, male, black, Hispanic, or American Indian. This fact raises serious questions in the minds of several authors (e.g., Hamilton, 1986; Mizell, 1987). One of the foremost questions is the applicability of raising graduation standards in districts that are concurrently worried about dropouts.

Many practices imposed by school boards and state level mandates seem to lead to the exclusion of minorities by raising standards. In Oklahoma, for example, recent educational reforms have included competency testing for high school graduation, the increase of math, science and social studies requirements and the effects on minorities. Fear of failure can be very influential and pervasive with students. This is particularly related to the impact of competency tests tied to higher standards. Many students fear that they will fail and when they see similar others fail, they do not choose to even try. The result is that they drop out of school (Catterall, 1986).

Competent minority students may not want to be vulnerable. Fear of the results of competency tests has lead to court challenges in Florida and in other places where there are significant minority populations (Fisher, 1985). Tests such as competency tests have been used historically to exclude minority members from a variety of positions (Smith, 1988), not just from graduation.

Lack of appropriate role models. Another causal variable for dropping out of minority students is the lack of appropriate role models in the school. Minority students have been shown to drop out because there is no adult of their culture or race in the school to function as a role model (Illinois State Task Force on Hispanic Student Dropouts, 1985). Perhaps this variable affects all students, however, it seems to have a particular impact on students who are in the cultural or ethnic minority.

When there are no role models for students, there is little likelihood that the student will be able to experience a culturally appropriate and often expected process of mentoring. The result is few anchors for the minority student who feels very different in the public school. There may not be someone to take an interest in and to push a student to reach his or her potential (Hammond & Howard, 1986).

Dehumanization. Many black and Hispanic students who have dropped out of school report that they left because of personal and cultural dehumanization or academic humiliation. For example, American Indian students recall being told "look me in the eye!" (Lipinski, 1989). This action in most Indian cultures indicates a lack of respect for the adult. Other students report academic humiliation when being forced to attempt tasks clearly beyond their capabilities in front of their peers. The lack of recognition of cultural or ethnic beliefs as well as personal humiliation often produces a negative psychological reaction within minority students in schools (Smith, 1986).

Discrimination. The level of acceptance by others which a minority student perceives at school can affect his or her choice to stay in school. Many minority students believe they are discriminated against by their teachers (Lipinski, 1989). They report that teachers suspect them when there are problems in class, denigrate them when the opportunity arises and do not allow them the same opportunity as children of the majority culture.

Many schools are sociologically intolerant of student diversity resulting in strong unspoken pressures on students who are different. Of course these students are likely to drop out. Many school practices and policies in the areas of attendance, academics and behavior relate to stereotypical perceptions of students (Wheelock, 1986). This can lead to increased school leaving on the part of those students who feel discriminated against.

Peer violence. As one reads the news media about the condition of the intercity, it seems that peer violence is another factor affecting students persistence in urban schools. Peer violence keeps many children away from schools, eventually causing them to drop out if they are severely threatened (Perales, 1988). Turf wars, where gangs fight for territory, in urban areas seem to exacerbate this problem.

Interestingly, the high statistics for violent death among teenagers, one indicator of peer violence, are found in intercities alone. In some counties in the west, the violent death rate for young males is 13% higher than it is for intercity youth (Helge, 1989).

Lack of support for education. A lack of support for education by significant others causes many students to lose interest in school (Howell & Freese, 1982; Ekstrom et al., 1986; Fennimore, 1989). The cultural community sets the tone. Certain "communities" or "cultures" do not see the school as the vehicle for success for most of their members. For example, in many traditional Hispanic communities young women are not supported in their educational endeavors because their first occupational position is perceived to be in the home. When the community is non-supportive of education more students drop out (Watt, Guajardo & Markman, 1987). This seem to be particularly true for minority students (Schwaback, 1985).

Children whose families have had bad experiences in education or who have themselves been unsuccessful in school typically are not supportive of the educational process. When the family does not support education the child is more likely to drop out (Barr & Knowles, 1986; Coleman, 1988).

Lack of peer support for education is another variable that feeds into the dropout equation. In schools where students are persisters, there is a nucleus of students who want to go on to school and provide support for others with similar goals. The same force works for many schools where minorities are predominant and most students plan to leave school early. Not only is a visible support group absent, but there is active work against going to school (Schwaback, 1985).

In fact, there may be tremendous social pressure against doing well in school. Many peers of potential dropouts are already dropouts. If these young friends were penniless and had nothing to do they would have little influence on the potential dropout. However, many have money, cars, clothes and other trappings of teenage success. All of these things are acquired after dropping out and may be viewed as a consequence of leaving school. The possibility of having attractive possessions makes dropping out look good to many minority youth, particularly if they tend to be delinquent (Dunham & Alpert, 1987). These peers are considered "system failures" because they show no affiliation to the school and they draw those still in the educational system away from school. This can happen directly through enticement or indirectly through modeling.

Parental problems. Parental problems such as divorce or separation, unemployment or chemical abuse disrupt family life and can reduce a child's stability to the point that school success becomes a meaningless goal. Single parenting problems are more severe in minority families than they are in majority families. A recent Wall Street Journal article states that 50% of black children and 33% of Hispanic children live with single parents as compared with 19% of white children (Otten, 1990).

Pregnancy. For young women, pregnancy is one of the oft cited causes of dropping out of school (Ediger, 1987; Hartford Public Schools, 1987; Stone, 1985). Hahn (1987) asserts that 80% of girls who become pregnant in high school drop out. In fact, it is the single most common reason for females leaving school.

Dropping out when pregnant can be caused by embarrassment, family pressures or school rules. In some districts, students cannot be in school while visibly pregnant or for some weeks after the baby is born. This usually means that an entire school year is lost (Beck & Muia, 1980; Howell & Freese, 1982; Ekstrom et al., 1986; Pallas, 1987). Typically, schools are reluctant to provide services for young mothers to remain in school. This is particularly true in rural areas (Helge, 1990).

Poverty. Poverty is another factor in lack of school persistence for minority students. Many dropouts report a need to make money or to help out at home as a reason for school leaving (Hartford Public Schools, 1987). Poverty is one of the factors often related to lack of school success (Fennimore, 1989). In rural areas, 30% of the farm population and 24% of the non-farm population live in poverty (Helge, 1990). In fact, people in rural areas are twice as likely to be poor as their non-rural counterparts (National Rural Studies Committees, 1989). And, dropouts are three times as likely to come from welfare families as from families not on welfare (Hahn, 1987).

Member of migrant family. As a member of a migrant family (Morse, 1987), students are at risk for dropping out. Over half of the migrant families are minorities. Their children have sporadic school attendance, tend to be behind in school, do not bond with school and are typically educationally alienated. Typically, migrant families are found in rural areas although some return to large cities when the crop season is completed.

Method

Instrument

The instrument for this study was created by Bull, Salyer and Montgomery (1990). The original scale contained 42 causal variables identified by the literature as dropout indicators. Of this group, 13 relate specifically to minority students and their school persistence.

Each item was presented as a possible cause for dropping out, withdrawing, being removed, or leaving school early as reported in the educational and psychological literature. For clarity, the causal variable was followed with a parenthetical explanation. For example, item 33 read: Discrimination (particularly by teachers against minority students). Participants indicated the rank of each as a national priority for the prevention of dropouts on a Likert-like five option scale ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5).

Subjects

The subjects were randomly selected principals (N=650) and superintendents (N=650) drawn from Patterson's American Education (Moody, 1989). Thirteen-hundred questionnaires were sent out. To improve the return rate, two follow-up mailings were also conducted. From the initial sample, 933 were returned and 891 of these were usable. This yielded a return rate of 71.8%.

The sample contained 752 identifiable males and 119 females. Subjects averaged 10.7 years in administration and 12.3 years in teaching. In terms of education, 417 held BA/BS degrees, 191 held MA/MS/MAT degrees and 245 held specialist or Ph.D./Ed.D. degrees. In terms of location, 398 were from rural schools, 189 from urban schools and 241 from suburban schools. The schools were reported in terms of socioeconomic status as 19 upper class, 583 middle class and 121 lower class.

Data Analysis

Data analyses were conducted using SYSTAT (Wilkinson, 1987) and SPSS-X (1983) and the default options therein, unless otherwise indicated.

Results

Chi-squares. One-way chi-squares were computed for the thirteen items related specifically to minorities. For ease of presentation, the "agree" and "strongly agree" responses and the "disagree" and "strongly disagree" responses were collapsed. The expected values are 40%, 20% and 40%, by category. Table 1 presents these data.

For the variables related specifically to minorities and in order of agreement, principals and superintendents find the following causes of dropping out to be national priorities:

(1) 88.8% - Parental problems (divorce, unemployment, separation),
(2) 86.9% - No hope of graduating (failed too much already, educationally discouraged),
(3) 79.3% - No parental support for education (active parental pressure against continuing),
(4) 65.4% - Pregnancy (and no active support to stay in school),
(5) 65.3% - No peer support for education (active peer pressure against continuing),
(6) 54.4% - Poverty (e.g., does not dress appropriately -- does not "fit in"),
(7) 50.4% - Migrant family (missed too much to catch up),
(8) 48.9% - Failure to pass, or anticipation of failure on, minimum competency tests,
(9) 46.4% - No community (cultural) support for education,
(10) 33.6% - Lack of teacher role models (e.g., minorities),
(11) 30.3% - Personal, cultural and linguistic dehumanization (no multicultural training for teachers),
(12) 21.5% - Peer violence (perceived lack of safety in school), and
(13) 17.1% - Discrimination (particularly by teachers against minority students).

Composite analysis of variance. An analysis of variance was used to examine a composite of the 13 minority items listed above to the remaining 29 non-minority items on the original scale. This was done to determine if causes specifically related to minorities were weighted as heavily as those related to other areas. Only significant main effects were found. Tukey post hocs revealed that non-minority items outweighed minority items and suburban administrators more than rural supported these items. Table 2 contains the summary analysis of variance table.

Individual analyses of variance. In addition to the overall test of the composites, individual one-way ANOVAs were conducted for each of the minority items by location. These tests indicated that seven of the minority causal variables had significant differences between urban, rural and suburban administrator district location responses. Specifically, the variables of pregnancy, no hope for graduation, poverty and dehumanization were seen as higher priority items for urban administrators than for rural administrators. Only one variable, no parental support for education, was a higher priority for urban administrators than for suburban administrators. And, lack of teacher role models and peer violence were higher priority items for urban administration than for both rural and suburban administrators. All significant analyses included significant Tukey post hocs. Table 3 reports these results.

Discussion

The results speak to a clear pattern taken by administrators. Their perceptions reveal an avoidance of responsibility for the dropout problem. The causes that administrators view as being priorities are rooted in the home, in the child or in the community. There is little agreement that administrators are interested in or see a need for dealing with school related items such as discrimination, dehumanization and violence. These very areas of less concern are an echo of what black, Hispanic and American Indian critics of the schools have noted for a long time.

The implications of these data could be that administrators do not agree with or understand the complaints of minorities or that they feel these complaints, which are fairly well substantiated in the literature, are not valid. It might also be that administrators are not cognizant of causes of dropping out which relate specifically to minorities and which could successfully be addressed in the public schools.

The means analyses indicate that urban administrators hold variables directly related to the retention of minority students in school as a higher priority than do suburban administrators. It is possible that urban administrators are more sensitized to the needs of minority students, it is also possible that these factors are more important in their districts because they affect the full range of student types in urban schools.

Those educators interested in working on the problems of minority dropout would be well served by the dissemination of the needs of minorities to the administration cadre. The focus of this dissemination should be on the specific needs of minority students. It is little wonder that the causes for dropping out affecting minority students are not dealt with if administrators generally do not know about them or hold them as high priorities.

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Table 1

Chi-Square Analyses of responses to the question: Should this cause of dropping out be a national priority?

Item	% Agreement		Cases		N	Chi-Square
Expected value		(40)	(20)	(40)		
Pregnancy	65.4	555	69	225	849	235.13
No peer support for education	65.3	556	115	180	851	230.04
No parental support for education	79.3	680	53	124	857	553.13
No community support for education	46.4	395	106	350	851	33.25
No hope of graduation	86.9	740	33	79	852	779.51
Being a member of a migrant family	50.4	425	286	150	843	185.39
Poverty	54.4	464	145	240	853	75.73
Lack of teacher role models	33.6	285	168	395	848	17.86
Peer violence	21.5	181	145	517	843	171.53
Discrimination	17.1	145	149	555	849	250.68
No multicultural training	30.3	257	217	375	849	36.90
Fail minimum competency test	48.9	415	177	256	848	37.67
Parental problems	88.8	755	37	55	850	844.49

Table 2

Analysis of Variance of Minority Items Against Non-Minority Items by Rural, Urban and Suburban Location Summary Table

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Prob
Location	2	14.62	7.309	36.32	.000*
Items	1	6.27	6.265	22.56	.000*
Location by Class	2	.39	.195	.703	.492
Error	1635	454.126	.278		

* Significant < .05

Tukey Post Hocs (alpha = .05)

Location:	Rural	Suburban	Urban
Means	2.649	2.734	2.703

Suburban > Rural (p < .05)

Items:	Minority	Not Minority
Means	2.608	2.760

Non-minority > Minority (p < .05)

Table 3

Significant Analyses of Variance Comparisons by Location* of Responses to the Question: Should this possible cause of dropping out be a national priority?

Item	U/S	U/R	S/U	S/R	R/U	R/S**
Pregnancy		X				
No hope for graduation		X				
Poverty		X				
Dehumanization		X				
No parental support for education	X					
Lack of teacher role models	X	X				
Peer violence	X	X				

* Significant comparisons also had significant Tukey post hocs.

** U/S = Urban > Suburban
U/R = Urban > Rural
S/U = Suburban > Urban
S/R = Suburban > Rural
R/U = Rural > Urban
R/S = Rural > Suburban

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Andrew R. Brulle
Co-Presenter: Keith Allred
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

Andrew R. Brulle, Ed.D.
Coordinator, Beginning Teacher Program

Keith Allred, Ph.D.
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College of Education
Eastern Illinois University
Charleston, IL 61920

Teacher Induction in Rural Areas: A Challenge for All

> My students just don't want to learn. I've tried everything I know to motivate them, but nothing ever seems to work. I want so much to be able to help them, but I just don't know what to do next. Please help me!
>
> First year teacher
> October, 1990

This impassioned plea for assistance was received from an idealistic, naive, frightened, yet competent, beginning teacher who was asked to list some behavioral problems for future discussion in a seminar series. Sadly, her plight and fears are shared by many teachers who have just entered the profession. When a new teacher enters the classroom for the first time, just as much (and sometimes more) is expected of him/her as is expected of a 20-year veteran. Hoping to shape the lives of his/her students, explore in depth topics that are dear to his/her heart, and wanting cooperation, the new teacher is rudely introduced to the many frustrations of lonliness, petty politics, uncooperative and unmotivated students, and poor academic preparation on the part of the students. This "reality shock" is felt by some (Stone, 1987; Veenman, 1984) to be the major factor in the typical 15% attrition rate of first year teachers.

In an early work, Eye and Lane (1956) proposed means of assisting beginning teachers in the difficult transition from the sheltered college atmosphere to the front lines of the individual classroom. In postulating an induction process, they stated:

> The induction of a new teacher begins with the first official contact that the new teacher has with the school... The process ends when he is able to stand as any experienced member of the staff, with a feeling of security which will enable him to teach effectively without undue fear or apprehension... The process of induction cannot be measured in terms of days or months as some teachers will take longer than others in making the full adaptation as a member of the school staff. Practically speaking, the school should have some organized means of helping all new teachers for an

> extended time, which means until they can profit sufficiently from a supervisory program designed for the entire staff (p. 325).

Johnston (1985) has proposed that a teacher induction program should include the following components: (1) provisions for acquiring additional knowledge and instructional skills; (2) opportunities for developing attitudes that foster effective teaching performance; (3) assistance in recognizing the effects of isolation; and (4) aid in becoming integrated into the school district and the community. While little argument with these goals has been voiced, the means by which programs of support for beginning teachers are delivered has varied greatly. The use of mentor teachers has proven to be popular (Shulman & Bernhardt, 1990), special university classes have been held (Zaharias and Frew, 1987), and Harvard University has instituted a computer network for beginning teachers to exchange ideas and commiserate (see Murphy, Merseth, & Morey, 1990 for a description).

When one attempts to conceptualize the development of a comprehensive program of support for beginning teachers however, many problems begin to surface. These problems are multiplied when one attempts to institute a program in rural areas. For example, many rural districts hire only one or a few new teachers each year. A program for one teacher is simply impractical. When districts cooperate and try a regional approach, then travel time becomes a factor. Differences in orientation across districts may have an effect as might relatively limited budgets. The Beginning Teacher Program at Eastern Illinois University has attempted to coordinate a program of support in a largely rural area of east central Illinois. The program description may be able to serve as a model for the development of similar efforts.

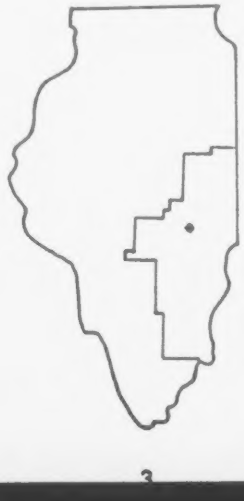
History

Founded originally as a normal school, Eastern Illinois University has grown into a comprehensive university of approximately 10,000 students. Located in Charleston, EIU is surrounded by a large number of very small school districts that service totally rural areas. In 1985, a proposal for a new program designed to provide support to EIU graduates of teacher certification programs was submitted and funded internally for implementation in the 1986-87 school year. The support model took three forms: (1) a newsletter was published and distributed periodically, (2) each semester a day-long seminar was held, and (3) consultant assistance from the university was made available to all EIU graduates if requested by that teacher's principal. The program received a very favorable response and ran successfully for 2 years. In the third year, the program took a hiatus while data were collected and the program was re-conceptualized. In 1989, the current program was begun.

Current Program

The current program for Beginning Teachers at EIU is based on the premise that continued professional growth is the most essential element in fostering good teaching. As a takeoff on the traditional three R's, Eastern's program offers new teachers the three S's, Survival, Support, and Sustained Growth. The idea was to provide new teachers with the immediate survival skills necessary to complete the first several months of school successfully, foster the development of a support network, and, as the first year progresses, gradually introduce means of continuing professional growth. The hope was that by the end of the year, the new teacher would have developed enough confidence to take his/her place as a contributing member of the school staff with a tentative plan for his/her professional future.

In establishing this program, the first step was to define the goals and identify the clientele to be served. EIU decided to focus on a reasonable geographic region and to service all of the new teachers in this region, not just the EIU graduates. Several factors entered into this decision. First, literature had consistently emphasized that most new teachers experienced the same stresses and problems (e.g., Heck & Williams, 1984). While some teachers adjusted better than others, all had similar concerns. In deciding to attempt to reach all of the new teachers in the area, EIU departed from its previously stated goal of providing "help" to those teachers who were referred by their principals. The assumption that sparked this departure was the feeling that most new teachers, however competent, would appreciate some nonevaluative assistance, and that the "referral" process used earlier carried with it a negative connotation of incompetence. By opening the program to all, this negative connotation could be erased. Second, since Illinois is a relatively large state with a number of universities scattered throughout, taking a cooperative, regional approach seemed to be the most efficient means of reaching new teachers. EIU graduates who took positions outside the region are referred to area universities who offer programs. Third, the travel time for the coordinator was considered. A travel limit of approximately 2 hours (one-way) was felt to be the maximum that should be planned. Below is a state map outlining the current geographic region. The region includes 84 school districts and 18 counties.



As decisions regarding the geographic area and clientele were being made, decisions concerning the goals of the program were also reached. The primary goal was determined to be to provide a means of assisting beginning teachers to become independent decision-makers in the classroom. With this goal in mind, the current sequence of providing survival techniques and initial support and moving gradually to more reflective methods was planned. It was felt that teachers needed first to experience some success with specific techniques and to become acquainted both with the coordinator of the program and the other new teachers being served before any real comfort, and subsequent lasting growth, could occur. It was determined to begin by providing very prescriptive recommendations and totally positive observations to allow the teachers to build confidence in the program. As the year progressed, more lasting steps could be taken.

A second major step in the program development was the constitution of an Advisory Committee. Invitations were extended to university faculty, local school districts, and area educational service units to provide representatives to serve on this committee. At regular meetings, the Committee was then asked to provide both input on the current offerings and suggestions for future directions. This Committee has always had animated meetings, and the recommendations have resulted in several positive changes. These meetings serve the additional purposes of maintaining university-community relations and allowing the participants to exchange ideas on topics outside of the Beginning Teacher Program. The insights and perceptions of educators with diverse roles has been very beneficial.

The final step in the development of the program was then to establish exactly what would be offered. Based on literature reviews, suggestions from the Advisory Committee, input from practicing teachers, and ideas from university faculty, it was determined to offer two separate, but related, services (1) a monthly seminar series offered at three regional sites, and (2) individualized, nonevaluative classroom visits by the coordinator of the program. Both of these services were offered free of charge to all beginning teachers in the area, and announcements of the offerings were distributed through the superintendents of every district. (N = 84).

The seminar series was geared to reflect the goal of providing teachers with specific skills first and moving throughout the year to more reflective skills. Three regional meeting sites were chosen to minimize the travel time for beginning teachers, dates were set, and topics chosen. For those teachers who wished and who paid a $70.00 tuition fee, one semester of graduate credit was offered for completion of the seminar. The first seminar focussed on appropriate techniques for conducting parent conferences, an immediate concern for most beginning teachers. This meeting has generally been quite formal, with the teachers dutifully taking notes and asking a few questions. Initially, very little spontaneous participation took place. At the second meeting, effective teaching practices was the focus and teachers were asked to complete and score a short survey on their own behaviors. During the following month, they were asked to find one area in which they hoped to improve, write one goal for themselves, and evaluate their progress. At the third meeting when these progress reports were shared, a major shift in participation and support for each other was noted. Teachers began to talk with each other spontaneously, raise questions regarding specific children, and offer ideas that they felt might be helpful. The typical groups of teachers from the same school all but disappeared. The third meeting also examined specific techniques for classroom behavior management. The fourth meeting also focussed on behavior management, but rather than examining specific techniques, a process of self-questioning and analysis was introduced and modeled. The fifth meeting dealt with stress management and seemed to function almost as a catharsis for some teachers. The sixth examined how teachers might more effectively individualize instruction in their own classrooms, the seventh dealt with means of promoting one's own professional growth, and the eighth meeting concluded with each teacher sharing his/her own professional growth plan.

Individualized classroom visits were offered to all beginning teachers on a nonevaluative basis. It was explained that the purpose of these visits was to observe whatever the teacher requested and to offer feedback on whatever questions or concerns the teacher might have. As might be expected, very few requests for visits were received during the first few months. As the teachers became more comfortable with the coordinator and the program, requests for visits increased from one per month to eight per month. The most common request was for the coordinator to watch one or several children in the class with whom the teacher was having difficulty. Sometimes the observations focussed on the entire class's responses to instructions or on how certain subjects were presented. During the visits, detailed data collected via a computerized observation instrument were sometimes collected to assist the teachers in evaluating the effectiveness of management techniques. Time was allocated for the teacher and coordinator to meet and discuss the visit. Generally, after the first visit, requests for follow-up visits came at an increasing rate.

As with any program, certain problems developed. One major concern with EIU's program is the travel time involved for the coordinator. The maximum number of visits that can be conducted in a day is three when travel time, observation time, and meeting time are all combined. With this logistical obstacle, it is not possible to visit the teachers as often as would be liked. A possible solution to this problem would be to train mentor teachers in each region who could provide the visits, yet without funding to pay for their time, this is not yet a feasible alternative. Instead, visits within regions are coordinated to minimize the number of trips the coordinator makes to certain areas. A second concern is the fact that no teacher can be required to participate in the program. Some beginning teachers, overwhelmed with responsibilities and under a great deal of stress, choose to go home and relax rather than attend a support series. A means of dealing with this concern would be to attempt to have participation in the program become a part of each district's negotiated contract. Some districts in the area are attempting this, others are not yet prepared to do so.

Future Possibilities and Recommendations

Service provision for beginning teachers in rural areas is a concept whose time has come, and it is an exciting prospect with which to become involved. As the teacher shortage manifests itself even more dramatically in the coming years, many rural schools will be faced with a cadre of instructors who are relatively new to the profession. The possibility of assisting these new, idealistic teachers in becoming polished professionals is both thrilling and frightening. New ideas are going to have to be tried and various service models will need testing. There are several possibilities that could be implemented soon on a widespread basis that are particularly applicable to rural settings.

The first idea is the concept of a mentor teacher program. Shulman and Bernhardt (1990) have implemented a mentor teacher program both in a large city and in rural areas. By providing experienced teachers with training specific in providing assistance to beginners, these researchers have shown that a mentor can have a significant impact on the success of a beginning teacher. By expanding this concept to offering training and follow-up for mentor teachers via an interactive television network, mentors throughout an entire region (including perhaps several states) could receive systematic training, participate in regular debriefing and retraining sessions, and network with each other. The technology for implementing this concept is already in place, all that is needed is the commitment and the fiscal resources.

A second concept that has been suceessfully implemented at Harvard University is a computerized network for beginning teachers. Again, the present technology would allow a region to establish such a network relatively simply. A possible expansion of this idea would entail the addition of consultants in various areas to whom requests for assistance could be automatically sent. Electronic communication could minimize the time needed for direct classroom visits by allowing both parties to exchange quite a bit of information before any visit would be made.

As districts, universities, and other service providers ponder the possibilities of implementing a program for beginning teachers, several points should be considered thoroughly. First, efforts should be collaborative in nature. All educational service providers have a vested interest in the success of new teachers, and this interest should be focal point of all efforts to establish a support network. One of the best successes of EIU's program has been its ability to pull together all parties (e.g., universities, districts, teachers' organizations, and educational service agencies) to develop a coordinated thrust, not a fragmented series of half-efforts. Coalitions take time to build, yet the benefits are immeasurable. By concentrating on a "systems change" as opposed to a "cosmetic change", results will be much more lasting. When the participants are vested with responsibility, then deep commitments are made. Second, thorough planning should take place before efforts are launched. By realizing that certain decisions are "pivot points", and that the directions set by these decisions will have ramifications far into the future, planners will take seriously their responsibilities and develop a model of service provision that clearly addresses their goals. Finally, by consistently seeking input from the consumers of the program (i.e., the beginning teachers), the program directors will be able to monitor the effects of their efforts and make the necessary revisions.

Beginning teachers both need and desire assistance. As with any neophyte, the beginning teacher feels confident at times and incapable at times. The goal of a program of assistance must be to take these novices and give them the help necessary so that they, in turn, will eventually be able to assist other beginners. If beginning teachers are empowered to take charge of their own professional lives, then they will develop into the professionals that are needed in today's classrooms. The task is not simple, but the alternatives are not tolerable.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Judy Montgomery
Co-Presenter: Gilbert Herer
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

Judith K. Montgomery, Ph.D.
Fountain Valley School District
Fountain Valley, CA 92708

Gilbert R. Herer, Ph.D.
Children's National Medical Center
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FUTURE WATCH: OUR SCHOOLS IN THE 21st CENTURY

"Futurists have a tantalizing way of describing the year 2001 as though being there has little to do with getting there. The future simply arrives full blown. But it is the succession of days and years between now and then that will determine what life will be like. Decisions made and not made will shape the schools of tomorrow."

-John I. Goodlad, A Place Called School

INTRODUCTION

"Future Studies is an attempt to examine systematically the factors that can influence the future...then project possible futures based on the interaction of those factors. This involves the exploration of alternative futures in hopes of imaging and inventing new ideas, options, and goals to pursue actively.

From a curricular point of view, futures studies is an interdisciplinary, conceptually based, process-oriented approach of exploring and investigating alternative futures from a personal and global perspective. It is a topical/thematic area of study which brings higher-order thinking skills, creativity, and sensitivity to bear on real-life issues and trends." (2)

Society does change, albeit subtly at first, as it becomes interested in the future. As change accelerates, the usual methods of solving circumstances do not seem to work because many have no precedent. What worked in the past has less value for resolving the problems of the more complex present and future. It becomes important, almost mandatory, under such circumstances to use a future possibilities framework to avoid unproductive problem solving. Methods that solved problems appropriately in the past usually were well suited to those problems. However, our present and immediate future world is fast paced and more complex. Less time is and will be available to resolve circumstances. Anticipatory and creative approaches to reviewing and resolving problems in the future are necessary. New perspectives about the future, therefore, are needed. (2)

> "One example of these new perspectives is oriented toward considering all stakeholders. In any given problem, a number of different stakeholders might benefit or suffer from solutions to various problems. Because we find ourselves increasingly connected to each others' lives, it becomes more important daily to consider all the ramifications of both the problem and its possible solutions. The solution to the problem will affect the different stakeholders in different ways, sometimes by design, sometimes by unintended and unexamined side-effects." (2)

The very nature of education is future oriented. Its major goal is to prepare people to lead productive lives in our society.....at some point in the future. Schools prepare students for a future exam, degree, or career, i.e. an expected future. Education, therefore, develops students' expectations about the future.

The term "futures" suggests: " 1) there is more than one possible future, 2) we are not locked into any one specific future and, 3) actions we take today can help us both create and discover a more preferable future for more stakeholders." (2) A futuristic attitude allows us to reorganize a sense of hopelessness about future uncertainty into an opportunity to influence and shape these anticipated changes.

Analyzing societal trends is a way to assess possible futures. A trend is a pattern of behavior occurring over time, and it often exhibits the following four characteristics: (1) The general direction of the trend; toward growth or decline? (2) The rate or intensity of the trend; how fast the growth or decline is occurring? (3) The general "balance" of the trend; toward steady or erratic growth/decline? (4) The lifetime of the trend; long or short-term?

Extrapolating trend information is a method of projecting an analyzed trend into the future. A trend's characteristics, as cited above, can be projected or inferred into the future. Whaley and Whaley (1986) describe trend analysis as a view of the past while trend extrapolation projects into the future. Trend analysis can trace a trend into the present but no further, whereas trend extrapolation can result in a forecast. The process of extrapolating a trend into the future as a forecast is based solely on the trend's past performance. Futurists caution us that a forecasting tool is only a good tool in the short term. It is a simple linear projection into the future, and does not consider many variables which could change the trend's future characteristics. The farther forward we push the trend the more inaccurate we become.

TRENDS OPERATING TODAY

There are certain important developments that will most likely affect our American society during the 1990's, and the decade beyond. All individuals in our society will feel their impact whether: rural or urban dwellers; wealthy, middle income, low income or impoverished people; professional, business or industrial workers; young and old; women and men; or those of different political persuasions. These developments have been synthesized in a document by the United Way of America (1989) as follows:

- Maturation of American
- Mosaic Society
- Redefinition of Individual and Societal Roles
- Information-Based Economy
- Globalization
- Economic Restructuring
- Personal and Environmental
- Family and Home Redefined
- Rebirth and Social Activism

Futurists often cluster such developments into major trend categories convenient for information gathering, analysis and discussion. These areas encompass: Social, Technological, Economic, Environmental, and Political trends. The following information from each of these categories highlights major trends that will impact America in the future.

Social Trends - **The elderly** (Ages 65+), the **baby boomers** (Ages 28-45), and **everybody else** as specific groups will decidedly influence American society throughout the next two decades. By the year 2000 the elderly will comprise 13% of our population. They will be healthier, better educated, wealthier and vitally interested in wellness/prevention rather than sickness/cures...although a significant number (approximately 3 million) will require long term care at home or in nursing homes. The 77 million baby boomers are becoming a force in business, government and politics. As a group, they are well educated and more challenging of authority. The baby boomers will seek social change, personal fulfillment and affluence, but few will find them. However, by sheer numbers they will have a significant impact on our economy as they enter peak earning years. The everybody else group will have greater numbers of less educated and poorer individuals than in the past. Impacts already being experienced in our society are fewer entry level workers, and more workers requiring remedial education by employers.

Other social trends overlaying the various age groups which will effect us significantly include: an increasingly multicultural society, one that is more linguistically diverse; a whiter older society and a browner younger one; population shifts to the South and West and to urban areas; more women entering our workforce (2 of every 3 new workers); more single-parent households; an increase in dependant care needs (older family members/children of working parents); more poor children, and more children without health insurance and access to health care; and,.....an illegal drug culture particularly among our youth which directly relates to the crime rate in the United States, the increasing number of crack babies being born, prison overcrowding, and the need for special social and education services in the future.

Health care is also a trend area of particular concern and interest to Americans. Trends reveal that: health care costs are rising faster than the rate of inflation partly driven by the cost of technology; present spending of 1.5 billion a day will triple by the year 2000; business is shifting more of its costs to its employees; close to 30 million U.S. citizens are underinsured or have no health insurance, with 20 million of these being children; and national health insurance concepts again will occupy the 1990's agenda of policy makers.

Specific health trends show: a rise in sexually transmitted diseases, AIDS being the most dramatic with almost 500,000 cases by 1992 but others increasing as well (e.g. syphilis, genital herpes) especially among teenagers and young adults; the waning of immunizations that protect children from preventable diseases, creating the potential for resurgence of the deleterious effects of such diseases as polio; the leveling off of heart disease due to diet, reduced smoking and exercise; and the non-plateauing of cancers even though some gains from chemo- and radiation therapy are apparent.

Technological Trends- These are the most dramatic of trends since they occur so rapidly. The two most prominent technological trends involve computers and genetic/molecular biology. Computer performance has improved a striking 50% each year over the past ten. Expert systems or data bases are available to solve problems and assist decision making. Current research may even lead to computers in the future that can teach themselves, known as artificial intelligence. Many recent computer advances are tied to the capacity and need to communicate (ex. networks, Fax), and thus introduce our new Information Age. Computers can be a boon to education, especially individualized learning of information. Computers have infinite patience and allow the student to control the learning system. Genetic/molecular biological research aimed at genome mapping is learning how the human system is put together. Its success has potential for reducing or eliminating disabilities and disease categories.

Economic Trends- There are several major economic trends that will influence our country through the turn of the century and beyond. The first involves the globalization of our economy; the other is the shift from an industrial to a technology driven information-based economy (4) (3). There is an increasing relationship between the economy of the United States and that of other nations. The economic growth of the United States in this decade is expected to be steady but slower than seen in the 1980's. This is due primarily to our country no longer being the world's only economic superpower. The U.S. will face more competition from the major industrial nations of the Pacific Rim which are increasing their share of the world's economy. Further, the types of jobs in the U.S. are being determined by the global competition that is occurring. Low-wage nations are reducing the need to produce low-tech goods in the U.S., and increasing our high-tech production of more complex goods and advanced information services.

This worldwide competition is challenging the United States to improve its economic performance. In order to do so, leaders of business and industry recognize they will need a better trained workforce.....one that is prepared for a high-tech, high quality economy. These leaders also are aware that an educated workforce is their major problem for the future, and therefore are investing energy and finances today to meet this challenge.

Environmental Trends- The potential effects of key environmental trends and our ability to influence them will receive increased attention over the next several decades. These trends include: the warming of the earth's atmosphere (greenhouse effect); the depletion of earth's ozone layer which protects us from harmful solar radiation; and pollution from hazardous waste (spills and landfills). Also, the potential reduction of our nation's and the world's oil supplies should focus attention on the development of alternative energy sources.

Political Trends - Trends in all areas influence the politics of our country, but none more than the social and economic trends. Our population shifts to the South and West will lead to reapportionment of about 18 congressional seats in the 1990's. And, the influence of the baby boomers and senior boomers, by their shear numbers and financial power, will dominate federal and state politics and programs. A decidedly multicultural population, particularly in urban centers and in some Western states, will effect the political agendas of these communities. The growing federal budget deficit will shift many responsibilities (and thus power) from federal to state governments. State governments will be playing more significant roles in the major domestic arenas of education and health care.

Another trend is a change in the way people are participating in the political process. There is a move from the formal voting process to less formal methods such as surveys of public opinion on issues. Elected and appointed officials of government are increasingly sampling the population's wishes/opinions prior to deciding upon courses of action in order to retain the support of the citizenry. Many recent examples exist of officials not being reelected or laws/regulations repealed because such support of actions taken was not assessed ahead-of-time.

FORCES RESHAPING AMERICA

Another perspective of the many trends just presented and a way of summarizing them and their influences upon our American society is to organize them into specific major categories that will effect us in the 1990s. The Environmental Scan Committee of the United Way of America's Strategic Institute provides us with such a clustering by presenting major "changedrivers" for the decade ahead (5). The reshaping to occur in our economy, institutions, society and lifestyles will be fast paced due to these changedrivers.

The Maturation of America

As described above, the baby boomer generation will mature into family-household-asset formation, and there will be growth in the over 65+ generation which will be more active, affluent and sophisticated. The United States leaves an era fixed on the youth culture, and moves into a society more realistic, responsible and tolerant of diversity. Our labor force will continue to grow older and more experienced. It will need to be better educated for the U.S. to complete economically worldwide. Business will offer older workers and retirees flexible schedules and retirement options to keep them on the job. Many middle-aged workers will experience limited promotions and therefore start their own businesses.

The Mosaic Society

The society within the U.S. will reflect a growing older population, rising education levels, more women in the workforce, more single-person and single-parent households, and increasing ethnic and linguistic diversity. Technology will allow the tailoring of products to each segment, thus reinforcing their distinctiveness. Our population growth will depend upon immigration. A greater proportion of growth will be among minorities such that they will constitute 1 of 3 Americans by the year 2000. Year round and magnet school options will increase in an effort to improve educational opportunities for all American children. The multicultural and multilingual character of our workforce will rise reflecting the increased share of it by immigrants. The rate of women in the workforce will slow, but their representation in top corporate positions will increase.

Redefinition of Individual and Societal Roles

Trends show that functions traditionally performed by government are being undertaken by the private business sectors. As the federal budget deficit limits addressing social problems, both federal and state governments are contracting with the private sector for services. Further, American business' concern about its workforce has led it to become directly involved with such major issues as education, day care, substance abuse and illiteracy. Business has stepped in as a major player along with government and the volunteer sector.

Individuals, too, are taking on more responsibilities once reserved for institutions. They are relying less upon institutions, and therefore moving away from the old loyalties exhibited in previous generations. Increased entrepreneurial activity, self-employment and changes of careers are a reflection of individuals taking the responsibility for their own employment and careers rather than waiting for opportunities from within institutions.

More examples of redefining individual and societal roles can be witnessed in the growth of self-help movements, declining union membership, closer customer contact by managers/employees of large businesses, the decentralization of government, selective re-regulation of certain industries and pressure to deregulate others, surveying the public on issues or submitting them through voting referenda before taking governmental action, and computer technology allowing small businesses to compete with larger ones.

The Information-Based Economy

Our daily lives, economics, and organizations will change over the next decade due to computer and microelectronic developments in information technology. The way we communicate, work and play will continue to be influenced by portable phones, Fax machines, computers, digital sketch pads, optical scanners, and voice-recognition systems. Such technology will: create a faster pace to people's lives, making 24-hour accessibility possible; spread businesses into networks producing products and services rather than creating them under one operational roof; facilitate electronic banking for small businesses; and raise concerns about individual rights of privacy due to electronic data collection.

Our children's education, as well as teaching and learning for adults should be enhanced greatly by information technology. It may also help resolve present concerns about the scientific literacy of Americans. However, technology "haves" and "have-nots" among our citizens are expected to develop, potentially effecting the latter's income expectations. And, information technology will pressure business executives and policy makers to be more hands-on managers. Such technology, too, allows new ways to accomplish old tasks, and permits a framework of trying new solutions for processes that are no longer effective.

Personal and Environmental Health

Individual health and the status of our environment are becoming key public concerns. The relationship between personal behavior and disease risks will receive increased attention. The cost of providing health (or disease) care will continue to be a major focus of attention as by the year 2000 we approach tripling the present 1.5 billion cost per day. Access to health care and its quality will draw significant attention, especially as they effect children, the poor and minorities in the U.S. Attention will also focus upon the AIDS epidemic, long-term care needs of the elderly, and medical ethics in a high tech health care environment. Research findings in mapping the human genome will help in the diagnoses of serious diseases, as well as in their treatment.

The last decade of the 1990s will see a heightened awareness of the threat from global warming, ozone depletion and toxic waste. It is possible that within 20 years regional economies will be changed due to climate changes caused by the greenhouse (warming) effect if carbon-dioxide emissions are not reduced. Also, we may find the ozone-depletion problem, which would expose us to harmful solar radiation, without solution. These global environmental problems, along with the clean up or disposal of toxic waste, most likely will continue to be addressed on a multinational basis for worldwide solutions.

Economic Restructuring

American business will continue to go through a restructuring process because of global competition, new technologies, diverse consumer tastes and deregulation. Businesses of all sizes are continually assessing their structure, products and services because of the constantly changing marketplace. Large businesses are reducing management layers, operating like networks rather than traditional line authority structures, and putting management in contact with customers. Small (niche) firms are springing up in large numbers, probably peopled by those leaving larger corporations. Both the small and very large firms will create most of the jobs, with mid-sized businesses less so. The increase of an older population and minorities in the U.S. will shape consumer markets. Economic growth will be strongest in our South and West where population growth is strongest. Because of fast paced technological changes, we will see new microelectronics and biology-based industries emerging. And, robust economies in newly industrialized nations will spread the global economy, thereby effecting our economy and businesses.

Family and Home Redefined

The picture of the American family has become diversified, exampled by single-person households, single-parent families, and two income families. The growth of single-person households has slowed, and family households will continue to outnumber non-family households. The divorce rate will decline. Income differences among families will rise with single-parent households falling behind and two income households gaining.

Rebirth of Social Activism

Coalitions between government, business, education and the non-profit sector will begin to address those social problems beyond the government's ability to resolve. Such issues will be addressed as pervasive homelessness, racial tensions, affordable housing, child poverty, environmental degradation and community roads. A conservative political mood counterbalanced by attention to social issues will prevail. The American public will be much less tolerant of business actions that are harmful to the economy, and those that could produce environmental pollutants especially the ones that threaten our health.

THE RENAISSANCE IN EDUCATION

Implied and often stated in discussions of the trends that will influence America over the next decade are those important issues affecting the education of our children (6). Often expressed as major concerns for education and thus the welfare of our country in the 90's are: illiteracy, the large high school drop out rate, diminishing science and math capabilities, the need for technology literacy of our future workforce, multicultural and multilingual school populations, high risk children entering school, poorer achievement in urban schools, and teacher availability and preparation.

Cetron and Gayle (7) state that "more business-and-school partnerships and increased parental participation are among the likely developments ahead. In the near future, American schools will have changed dramatically, and so will people's relationship to them." Business will strongly support schools with finances and personnel realizing that its future productivity and international competitiveness depend upon an educated workforce. However, Cetron and Gayle point out that parents are the key to success. It is parents who:

> "must accept responsibility for the performance of their local school system. They must offer themselves as part-time teachers and teaching assistants. They must work with local political leaders to raise school budgets to pay teachers for performance (merit pay) and with school administrators to see that funds are used to promote effective classes in the core subjects. Above all, they must make certain that their own children understand the importance of a good education and have the support required for the difficult job of learning."

Cetron and Gayle (7) have compiled an array of trends and developments that will effect education in the U.S. as we approach the year 2000. The listing that follows highlights a sampling of the key trends they have compiled.

1. Education will be the major public agenda item and viewed as key to our economic growth.

2. There is a growing mismatch between the vocabulary, reading and writing skills of our workforce and the competencies required on the job. This involves entry level workers, and those on the job not adapting to new technology.

3. Public school enrollment will increase to 43.8 million by 2000, up from slightly below 40 million in the 1980's.

4. One million will drop out of school yearly due to increased academic standards, drug abuse and teen pregnancy (to cite only a few key reasons), costing an estimated loss in earnings and taxes of $240 billion over their lifetimes.

5. The supply of newly graduated teachers will meet only 60% of the new hire demands of public schools during this decade. We will need a million more than available due to retirement, class size requirements and enrollment projections.

6. Minorities among students will grow as they will in the general population, but will not be reflected in the ranks of teachers. The pool of minority teachers-in-training is small.

7. Lifelong learning will be reflected in education delivery systems.

8. A core curriculum will emerge from a debate of teaching basic skills versus arts, and vocational education versus critical thinking.

9. Foreign language/bilingual instruction will be necessary for all students as states prepare them for a worldwide marketplace.

10. Vocational education emphasizing technical literacy will be demanded by and required of an increasing number of students, and will be integrated with academics in a restructured curriculum.

11. Although valued in principle, a liberal arts college education will not be valued in pay or competitiveness for jobs requiring special skills.

12. More than half of all jobs will require postsecondary education and training, but only 15% will require a college degree. Technical institutes/community colleges will supply the former.

13. The ingredients of school reform will continue to be debated in the 1990's (e.g., merit pay, longer school year, local control, accountability measures, curriculum design, etc.), with improvements occurring in some areas but not national averages on standardized tests. A national consensus on reform will be necessary to achieve the latter and reassert the supremacy of U.S. education versus that of other industrialized nations.

14. A futures perspective of basics in education will occur, using telecommunications technologies, advanced science knowledge and technical skills to achieve problem solving.

15. Educational bureaucracies at all levels of government will lose power as reforms occur in the 1990's. Parents, teachers, students and business leaders will demand more involvement in decisions, will have little knowledge of how to restructure, and will move forward with little research.

16. Curriculum, teacher training and achievement standards will be controlled centrally, but decentralization of school and classroom management will occur.

17. Principals will be the leaders of change in schools and will share responsibility for school-based management with staff. This will require high quality professionals during a time (the 1990's) of shortages for qualified school administrators.

18. Numerous school alternatives will fragment the traditional education system. Initiatives will range from extreme centralization/financial control to vouchers used by parents selecting private schools. Although traditional public school programs will persist, many will have increased private-sector partnerships.

19. Parents and special-interest groups will raise legal challenges to issues such as curriculum, expenditures, and access, especially as they pertain to minorities and those with low incomes. Educational equity issues will be redefined in terms of expenditures and not access.

RURAL SCHOOL RESPONSE

The array of trends cited above reflect changes that are occurring today, generating responses and new programs tomorrow. A study, supported by the Ford Foundation and recently reported in Education Week (8), relates the unique responses of rural schools to the stress of economic and social changes in their communities. Both the schools' curricula and communities' needs benefited by insightful rural school leadership's exploration of non-traditional curricula approaches.

The activities of a school system in a South Dakota town of 4,500 were cited. School officials realized that their high school graduates were not taking any cultural identity with them when they followed the trend of moving away. The school staff responded in various ways including establishing a new course entitled Research and Development. Through it, students established an entrepreneurial class store which eventually became a business. Another new venture had journalism students writing for the town's newspaper intead of a school paper. Students in art and photography classes helped with the town's project to renovate and revitalize its downtown business district. The success of the projects undertaken caused this South Dakota town's school board to change its district's mission statement to include curriculum that links the community to the school system. Rural schools and their communities may have unique circumstances which facilitate responding to changes generated by trends that affect them. A statement from the study cited above reflects that view ... "Rural schools offer an educational environment in which change can occur more easily, adult-child linkages are more visible, and school-community linkages are more natural."

Another special rural issue which has the potential for school-community cooperative ventures is providing health care, especially in view of the decline in the number of physicians in rural settings. Exactly how such cooperation will evolve remains to be seen, but the common interests of government, business, schools and the population in rural settings almost mandate such cooperation. A recent article in the Washington Post (9) highlights the health needs of an aging rural population faced with fewer available physicians. Children's health care in rural areas also will be effected by this same decline, particularly in areas where children experience greater than usual health problems due to the effects of fetal alcohol syndrome, lack of immunizations, and poor prenatal care. Children experiencing the deleterious effects of such problems can face learning difficulties. These circumstances become challenges for rural education systems, governments, and businesses. Comprehensive planning and venturing between school and community to resolve health care needs in rural areas, therefore, appears necessary. Because of the complexion of the rural environment, such cooperation may be easier to accomplish than in urban-suburban areas.

CONCLUSION

Future studies have reported a host of significant social, technological, economic, environmental and political trends that will effect all segments of society in the United States during the 1990's. These trends will create change, offer challenges and provide opportunities to shape our future if we understand and act upon them. The education of our nation's children will be greatly influenced by many, if not most, of these forces re-shaping the United States. The specific trends affecting students, teachers, and curriculum as well as education's governance, finance, and laws will restructure the schools of the future. Rural schools will participate in this reshaping in education and offer unique circumstances to meet the challenges and opportunities offered by these future trends.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Mildred B. Vance
Co-Presenter: Beverly Boals
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Janet E. Quade
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

Janet E. Quade Ed.D.
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FIELD-BASED EDUCATION IN ARIZONA

INTRODUCTION

To meet the educational needs of the residents of rural Arizona, Northern Arizona University has been given the mission by the Arizona State Board of Regents to provide higher education in the counties outside of the major metropolitan areas of this state. Courses and/or degree programs are currently being offered by N.A.U. in more than 40 different rural cities and communities of Arizona on a regular basis.

Serving the rural areas of Arizona has been facilitated by the establishment of nine field sites and the N.A.U. Yuma Center.

CENTER FOR EXCELLENCE FIELD SITES

The Division of Educational/Field Services of N.A.U.'s Center for Excellence in Education has established nine field sites which are strategically located throughout the state in a way that provides services as economically and efficiently as possible to the greatest number of people in the rural areas.

Two-plus-two teacher education programs have been developed with a number of community colleges in these rural counties. With well-planned articulation students can take their first two years at the community college and then continue their upper level course work by enrolling in the N.A.U. upper division Liberal Studies classes and complete their coursework for a B.S. in teacher education on the same community college campus. President Eugene Hughes has signed agreements with Arizona Western Community College, Mohave Community College , Eastern Arizona Community College and Cochise Community College, committing the university to a comprehensive two-plus-two program for students pursuing the B.S. degree in Education.

There are currently fifteen masters degree programs throughout the State including a full program in Educational Psychology at Luke Air Force Base and a masters degree program in BME/ESL in Nogales, Arizona. Typically thirty-six hours of a masters program are offered at a site providing a degrees in elementary education, secondary education, early childhood education, special education and educational leadership. Students are urged to take at least twelve hours of coursework at the N.A.U. campus in Flagstaff during summer sessions. Many students take advantage of this opportunity to lighten their academic year load and to complete the program in a shorter period of time.

In addition to degree programs, classes to complete certification requirements are offered throughout the state. These classes often dovetail with classes irequired in degree programs or they may be specific classes offered to meet certification in areas such as educational administration, reading, special education, and gifted education.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL IN-SERVICE WORKSHOP

In Arizona bringing new information into the elementary and high school classroom and expanding skills with new pedagogical methods is facilitated by the Public School In-service Workshop. In cooperation with the Arizona State Department of Education the N.A.U. Public School In-service Workshop courses can be utilized by school districts to provide for staff development in new teaching techniques or updating content. The teachers may receive credit which can be applied towards a graduate degree at N.A.U. The State Department of Education and the N.A.U. Field Site Coordinators work with school administrator to develop the classes needed in their district.

INTERACTIVE TELEVISION CLASSES

Plans for education in the rural areas include a satellite transmission system to support the current instructional television system. For example, Northern Arizona University will be able to transmit foreign-language coursework to schools possessing the necessary transmission equipment so that the rural elementary schools can meet the state mandates to teach a foreign language in elementary schools. Undergraduate and graduate classes in nursing, business and education, may also be transmitted through an interactive television system to provide distance education in rural areas. An on-campus class can be taught with students in distant sites receiving the same instruction and having the opportunity to interact with the professor within that same class period.

THE FIELD SITE OFFICES

The key to the success of the N.A.U. off-campus programs has been the field site offices. Each of the nine field sites is staffed by a Regional Field site Coordinator. Individuals who are selected as Coordinators have a strong background in education, possess at least a masters degree and have a demonstrated competence as professional educator.

The Field Site Coordinator represents N.A.U. in a variety of capacties and is the conduit for information flowing to and from the Flagstaff on-campus faculty and staff to individuals and educational agencies in the rural areas of the state. It is the responsiblity of the Coordinator to determine the educational needs of the area and attempt to provide degree classes, workshops and seminars that meet those needs. The Coordinator serves as the advisor forthe students in each of the programs, selects and evaluates instructors, and maintains contact with the agencies in designated counties. A close working relationship with the N.A.U. on-campus faculty,administration and staff is essential.

NAU - YUMA CENTER

The NAU Yuma Center is the result of the collaboration with Western Arizona Community College to provide higher education in the southwestern corner of the state. Northern Arizona University provides undergraduates with the upper division Liberal

Studies and classes for a limited number of disciplines, graduate and undergraduate, all on this community college campus. A permanent NAU staff resides in Yuma.

CONCLUSION

It is estimated by the N.A.U. College of Continuing Education that over twenty-two percent of the population of Arizona is in geographic areas that do not have higher education opportunities of higher education available to them. The projections for the future indicate that the growth in the numbers of students, graduate and undergraduate, will occur at the same rate in the rural counties of Arizona as it will in some of the metropolitan areas. As the demand for better educated employees and the desire for more economically rewarding positions increases, providing more readily available classes in the rural communities becomes a necessity and a right of all taxpayers. Through its system of field-sites, Northern Arizona University takes higher education to places far from the mountain campus in Flagstaff to where the need is great but the population is sparse.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Tabitha C. Daniel
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

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TEACHER - STUDENT INTERFACING FOR EFFECTIVE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

One common denominator that exists in most early childhood educational programs today is the importance placed on language development in the young child. Regardless of the difference in program orientation as to the amount of structure, or types of materials that are used, spoken language is the means by which much teaching takes place in the preschool classroom, and by which students demonstrate to teachers much of what they have learned. Language is seen as a tool by which students make sense of their learning, interpret knowledge, and examine existing assumptions while developing a representation of the world. (Britton; Martin) Thus, learning in the classroom is always dependent on language acquisition. (Jacobs)

One of the many roles of the preschool is to extend and enrich the language learning of the child and to provide remediation if necessary. (Spodek) It is through language that we receive and give information, ask questions, respond to other people, form friendships and work out problems. This extension and enrichment role is important. When the child enters school he often find himself understood in a way that is different from his home. Teachers always need to build on the learning and language that children bring to school from their homes and their community. (Jacobs)

Courtney Cazden reports using a process known as expatiation which can help teachers in improving the language ability of children. This method requires the adult to react to the child's utterances by expanding on the child's statement. The child may say, "Cookie gone," and the adult may extend and enrich the child's statement by replying "Yes, you have eaten the entire cookie."

Another successful elaboration strategy bases instruction on the child's utterance but ends with open-ended questions to move the child beyond his original statements. (Blank)

Children who are functioning at a higher level may practice expressive language skills when teachers utilize higher-order questioning skills.

Questioning helps a teacher facilitate learning, not only by expanding language abilities, but by expanding the children's decision-making ability. By asking the right questions you can encourage child to fit together facts in new ways or to look at a problem and generate several solutions to it. (Forman; Forman & Kuschner)

There are several things to consider in formulating the right questions. Will the child be able to comprehend your question? And what kind of information are you seeking or do you wish the child to seek?

There is general agreement that "yes/no" and "what" questions are the easiest for children to answer and "why" questions are the hardest. If you ask a child a "why" question and receive an irrelevant answer, then the question might be rephrased to ask who? where? or when? (Flander; Taba & Elkins) It has been stated that certain types of questions can help a child explore himself and to become more aware of his capabilities and potentialities.

These types of questions are divergent in nature. Divergent questioning leads to divergent and creative thinking. Because the child is able to generate his own responses to the question he becomes more aware of his own capabilities. This awareness may lead to increased self-confidence and self-esteem. Such good questioning is a very complex skill, requiring perception, sensitivity to the child's needs and creative response.

As teachers we need to be aware that as we improve our verbal interaction with our students, they in turn will improve their interactions with others. This will have an advantageous effect for you, the child and the learning process.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION

Presenter: Georgine G. Steinmiller
Co-Presenter: Robert Steinmiller
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

Georgine Steinmiller
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Henderson State University
Arkadelphia, AR 71923

Keeping Our Students in School: An Alternative Approach for At-risk Students

Research has suggested that students who do not finish high school are often at risk of not being able to thrive as productive citizens. Persons who do not finish high school are heavily represented in our prisons and on our welfare rolls (Gabriel and Anderson, 1987). The economic potential for this group as a whole is greatly diminished.

A high school diploma is often an entry level requirement for many employment opportunities. Graduation is a stepping stone for any advanced educational opportunities such as community or junior college, four-year colleges and universities, as well as technical or vocational schools. Most job advancement is tied to educational minimums. A person might land a manual labor job without a high school degree, but will be hindered in advancement beyond that low level job. Usually this is often at a wage which is barely livable.

Encouraging students to stay in school is a preventative measure. This is a much more difficult task than it seems on the surface. One must get to the heart of the problem and help alleviate the reasons why students drop out.

In response to surveys given to students who have dropped out of school, the main reasons for leaving school are identified: 1. lack of interest in school because it means nothing to them, 2. a need to earn money, 3. pregnancy, and 4. getting married (Beekman, 1988).

This first reason demands our greatest attention. If we can show students why finishing school is important, as well as encouraging them to buy into the value of education, much of the drop-out picture will change.

Arkansas is attempting a program which addresses how the student perceives education. This program is a replication and adoption of a program originated in Texas, called Youth Opportunities Unlimited (Y.O.U.). In June of 1988, Arkansas implemented its first summer residential Y.O.U. program for high school students who have been designated as at-risk for dropping out of school. The Y.O.U. participants were identified by their school counselors as "at-risk" for dropping out, using factors such as low family income, families who have not completed high school, families who have not placed a huge value in education, lack of interest in school, mobility, etc, (Gabriel & Anderson, 1987; Steinmiller & Steinmiller, 1990).

The first efforts of Henderson State University and the Arkansas Department of Education marked the beginning of the Youth Opportunities Unlimited Program in Arkansas. In 1989, Henderson hosted a second program, with the addition of three more programs at other Arkansas universities: Arkansas State University in Jonesboro, Southern Arkansas University in Magnolia, and University of Arkansas at Pine Bluff. In 1990, a fifth program was included. This program was housed at the College of the Ozarks in Clarksville, Arkansas.

The Y.O.U. Program is dependent upon the commitment and resources of state agencies as well as from many community members. The Department of Human Services provides resources to offset the cost of food for the participants. Each host university provides office space, office utilities, and janitorial services as in-kind services. Each university also provides academic scholarships to Y.O.U. graduates. All three educational agencies (general, vocational, and higher education) have worked together to assist these students in receiving this opportunity. The Vocational Technical Division through 8% funds have provided curriculum and testing materials as well as technical assistance by housing the state Y.O.U. Supervisor. Carl Perkins Vocational Funds have been utilized to provide for the three year follow-up and research component. Participating service delivery areas (SDAs) are responsible for providing funding for selected Y.O.U. students. The cost for each student is approximately $3,150 (Y.O.U. Fact Sheet, June 1989).

As Arkansas is a very rural state, the approach of using several colleges and universities to serve different areas of the state allowed more students access to the program.

Since the program is residential, students from the most remote areas of Arkansas can easily participate. The Y.O.U. program includes room board and transportation expenses, so students without a strong economic base are able to attend and gain from this experience.

Each Arkansas Y.O.U. program gives fourteen and fifteen year-old students across the state the opportunity to master basic skills in language arts, mathematics, and reading as well as work experience during their "intensive" sixty-day residential program on the universities' campuses, (Henderson State University Press Release, June 14, 1988).

The Y.O.U. Program is an outstanding program in the state of Arkansas because it focuses on the "total child". Y.O.U. attempts to address every child's needs. For example:

> Students from all across the state live on a college campus for 60 days in the summer. This provides a unique opportunity for students from various backgrounds to experience (1) life on a college campus, (2) many varied cultures, (3) life in a positive environment, (4) possible job opportunities for the future, and (5) what can be theirs if they finish high school.
>
> Each program hires certified teachers which utilizes an Arkansas approved curriculum. This allows the Y.O.U. students the opportunity to receive high school elective credit in language arts, reading, mathematics, and P.E. These credits can apply to graduation. Students are given the opportunity to receive instruction specifically designed to meet their needs. The average teacher/pupil ratio is 1:6.
>
> The Y.O.U. students are provided the opportunity to earn approximately $600.00 to $700.00 for on-campus employment. Although students earn almost $90.00 a week, most Y.O.U. participants are given an allowance every Friday as a stipend. The remainder of the money is put into safekeeping. The Y.O.U. safekeeping account allows for students to learn how to budget their money as well as understand the value of saving

money. At the end of the program, students are allowed to spend some of the savings to purchase necessities such as school clothes for the fall. The remainder is sent to him/her in a check.

The medical component of this program is outstanding. Every Y.O.U. student is provided with medical and dental examinations as well as with medical insurance for the entire summer. For many of our students, this is the very first opportunity they have had to seek medical attention. In addition to medical and dental examinations, most students are given a TB test, vision examination, and hearing examination. Many students received glasses through the Y.O.U. program.

Midway through the summer, the Y.O.U. program hosts a parents' weekend. The Program provides for transportation, food, and lodging for two people per family. While on campus, the parents are asked to attend a series of seminars about obtaining financial assistance for college, how to help your child in school, and the importance of a good education. The weekend finale is a banquet with a talent show provided by the students.

Through the Y.O.U. Program, students are also given the opportunity to visit exciting places in the state of Arkansas as well as surrounding states. For many, this is their first travel adventure. As a special treat, the students were treated to a special day at the Governor's Mansion (Y.O.U. Fact Sheet, 1989).

Henderson State University has the responsibility to conduct the follow-up research for the Youth Opportunities Programs in Arkansas. Henderson is tracking the pilot group of Y.O.U. students for three years. With the cooperation of key persons at the other universities and colleges, Henderson is also gathering data on the four 1989 programs, and the five 1990 programs. Final results for the pilot group should be available by October of 1991.

The follow-up endeavors are intended to help determine the success of the Arkansas Y.O.U. program. Data collection includes information related to grades, attendance, self-esteem, and attitudes. The most important variable, though, will be staying in school and graduating.

This paper reflects the 1990 data collection endeavors for the 1988 pilot group. In subsequent papers, we will share our data reports as we progress through our study.

The 1988 pilot group started the program with fifty-two students. Forty-four students finished the 8 week program. This is an 84 percent completion rate. During the first year of follow-up, one student died in a fire; thus forty-three students are included in the pilot follow-up. At the end of the first year follow-up, four students moved out of state. Even though they have left Arkansas, we are maintaining contact with these students. Also, only two students had left school. One of the students left to get married, but actually intends to return or get her G.E.D. The other was expelled because of absences, but re-enrolled during the 1989-90 school year.

At the end of the second year, two students are out of the state (two moved back from last year). Two students have already graduated and are attending a university, one other has received his G.E.D. There are six students who have been reported as having left school.

The grades recorded for both the first and second year follow-up of the pilot group showed little change. The average grades earned for the pilot students prior to the Y.O.U. summer program (1988) was 2.19. The average grades of the first year after Y.O.U. (1989) was 1.89 and for the second year after was 2.10.

The attendance for the first year follow-up also showed little change. The average number of absences for the pilot students prior to the Y.O.U. (1988) was 3.1 days. The average number of absences for the Y.O.U. students during the first year after the Y.O.U. program (1989) was 3.17, and during the second year after Y.O.U. was 3.10.

We measured the students' self-esteem using the Jr.-Sr. HSPQ Test Profile. We pre-tested the students during the first week of the Y.O.U. program and then post-tested them during the last week. The information derived from the self-esteem inventory included factors such as coolness or warmth, concrete or abstract thinking, emotional stability, excitability, dominance or submission, variation in mood, conforming attitude, shy or boldness, tenderness or tough mindedness, vigorous or withdrawn, self assured or apprehensive, self sufficient, self discipline, and relaxed or tensed. The results of the pre/post test demonstrated that the students' scores changed from extremes in the above areas to a more normal rating. This demonstrated more "normal" self-esteem pattern for the group as a whole. This was also reflected in the individual changes.

The HSPQ inventory was again administered in the spring of 1990. Twenty-five of the forty-three pilot students attended a reunion retreat. The results of the HSPQ inventory maintained the normal measures established in the original post-test. Thus the positive self-esteem effects of the Y.O.U. program continued through the second year.

Another area we measured is the attitude of the students. Although this can be very subjective in nature, one cannot disregard the importance of students views of themselves and their experiences. When students made statements such as "I know I'm smarter than I used to be" or "I study better than before" one can assume a positive attitude change has occurred.

In the spring of each year, we interview each student to see what student attitudes prevail. In both the spring of 1989 and of 1990, the students continued to make very positive statements.

The results from the first and second year follow-up look promising. Although the grade point and attendance did not improve significantly, they did not drop significantly either, but they remained stable. The self esteem results were very positive. Students scores were in the extreme range in the pre-test and settled into the normal range on the post-test. These scores remained stable after a two year lapse. The positive attitudes reflected by the students during their exit interviews continued to remain so two years later. But most promising is the fact that three students have already completed high school with two in college. Also, of the forty-three pilot students, only six have left school. As of the spring of 1991, the pilot group has an 84% stay in rate. So far, even with a very "at-risk" population, we are favoring well in the drop-out statistics.

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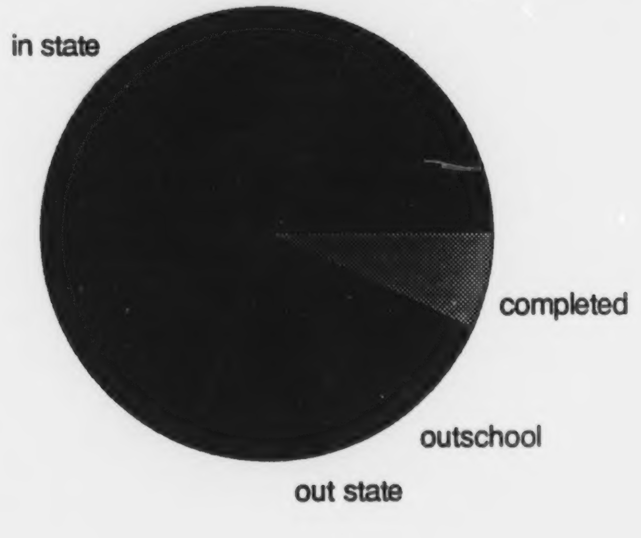
Youth Opportunities Unlimited
1988 Pilot Program
Ratio of Students in and out of School



43 students

32 students in school in state * 2 in school out of state
3 completed high school/GED * 6 out of school

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Karen Hirsch
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

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Disability Rights and Independent Living Movements

The major purpose of this paper is to tell the story about Disability Rights and Independent Living (IL), two interconnected movements that are gaining strength within the community of disabled people in the United States and to bring this story to special education teachers who work in rural areas. In so doing I hope to affect some of the disabled individuals who live so far away from established Centers for Independent Living that they may not have heard about, much less become part of, the changing attitudes and the growing sense of community that is on the rise among disabled people in the world today.

Special education teachers are already involved in transition programs, as when they work with Rehabilitation Services and other agencies to help students with disabilities leave the school and successfully enter the work force or find a role for themselves as they begin the adult phase of their lives. IL programs--run by disabled people and serving disabled people--represents another resource for this process, and because of their unique qualities these programs play a vital role for some disabled adults in the areas of the country where they are located. Special education students in rural areas need a chance to join the Independent Living and Disability Rights movements, and special education teachers have a chance to bring them this information.

The American with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990, P.L. 101-336, became law in part because of intense lobbying by a nationwide network of disabled activists. Many of these activists first became involved in the Disability Rights movement through their contact with a local Center for Independent Living. A large army of disabled people joined letter-writing campaigns and telegram blitzes in support of the ADA at different crucial times during its passage through the Senate, the House, and various congressional committees during 1989 and 1990. Many of these disabled activsts were spurred into action by information about the bill and specific instructions for what to do that were distributed by local IL centers as well as national advocacy organizations.

The Independent Living Movement was born in Berkley, California in the 1960s when a group of severely disabled students at the University of California decided to move out of the infirmary, or student health center, and organize a place where they could live independently away from the supervision of medical personnel. They succeeded in setting up an accessible place to live, arranging for and managing their own attendant services, and achieving independence and self-determination while completing their education.

What they still had trouble with was finding jobs. In spite of formal qualifications and high levels of competence, these severely physically disabled people with college degrees could not find employment in their fields. With financial assistance from Rehabilitation Services, they started their own program, the first Center for Independent Living, where they planned to give disabled people a chance to gain work experiences and become more competitive on the job market. Finding employment outside centers for IL has remained difficult for most severly disabled job seekers. But as IL centers similar to the first one in Berkley have been set up across the United States, a different outcome has emerged: a new model for providing services for people with disabilities.

Independent Living as a service delivery model has been described by Gerben DeJong (1978, 1983). His direct comparisons between the Independent Living and Rehabilitation Services programs are especially interesting. While the Rehabilitation Services model puts the locus of the problem in the individual, the disabled person who needs to be "rehabilitated" so that he or she can become ready for the competitive job market, the Independent Living model puts the locus of the problem on the inaccessible environment, emphasizing the need to remove existing barriers in the community so that people with disabilities can have equal opportunities with non-disabled people in their search for employment. The locus of control over the program and the delivery of services also differs between the two models. In Rehabilitation Services the locus of control lies with the professional counselor, whereas in Independent Living the locus of control is clearly vested in the disabled person, the consumer of the services.

For teachers as well as rehabilitation counselors, it has not been easy to begin to see that the delivery of services could be effective if controlled by the "recipients," the clients. Giving the clients a more active role, the role of "consumer," a role that already has a familiar ring in the mind of the American public, has proven to be empowering for disabled people and has given them an opportunity to practice independence and self determination. It is one of the key elements of the IL model that make these programs effective.

Some of the ideas that have emerged from the IL movement have been somewhat altered as they have been integrated into special educational and rehabilitation literature. The phrase "independent living" is now being used to mean a wide variety of things, especially notable are segregated apartments or houses that are organized by professionals so people with disabilities can live there. This meaning of "independent living," however, does not conform with the original philosophy of the Berkley group, nor with the spirit of the large network of programs and individuals that make up the "Independent Living Movement." Integration into all aspects of society: equal opportunities; freedom of choice for where to live and where to work and what to participate in; self-determination and control over one´s own life and affairs; these are the goals of both the Independent Living and Disability Rights Movements.

One of the most important aspects of the Independent Living movement is the emphasis on advocacy and social activism. The list of services that a typical IL program provides includes both advocacy on behalf of disabled individuals and systems advocacy--efforts to change a community's policies and general level of accessibility. Independent Living programs are mandated to be administered and managed by disabled people, and to include individuals from all different types of disability groups. Until now, most IL centers have been established in large metropolitan centers, and the typical IL program model is better suited for providing services in urban settings. As a result, less advocacy for accessibility has been done in rural areas, and less information about programs, legislation, and networking has reached individual disabled citizen in these areas. In short, public places are less accessible for disabled people in the country side, and successful integration in community life remains even more difficult for disabled citizens in rural than in urban areas.

Since the passage of Public Law 94-142 in 1975 there has been an increasing number of students with disabilities who have been receiving a "free and appropriate" education in the "least restrictive environment" and who have been graduating or leaving school with the expectation of continuing their life in the local communities along with their non-disabled peers. The trouble is that society is less accessible and less ready for integration than schools. In spite of the stated goal of the Office of Special Education Programs "to facilitate the movement of each student with a handicap from a school/home environment to the fullest possible participation in the society at large" (U. S. Department of Education, 1990, p. 108), the National Council on Disability provides a pretty dismal picture of what reality is like for students with disabilities. While 56% of all students attended post-secondary education programs in the mid eighties, the comparable number for students with disabilities was 15%, and while the national unemployment rate was 5%, the unemployment rate among people with disabilities was 14.2% (National Council on Disability, 1989).

For many disabled students, especially those living in rural areas, the end of school attendance far too often means the end of services and the end of meaningful activities. Many disabled young adults face a restrictive set of options: they could move to a city where they might find services and accessible activities, if not employment, or they might end up staying at home with their parents as long as the parents are able to help with the attendant services they need, or, all too often, they are forced to enter geriatric nursing homes because that is their only option.

People who do not have first hand experiences that confirm such situations find it hard to believe that a nursing home can be the only choice a bright, young disabled person could have. As a director of an IL center in the South covering both an urban and a large rural area, I had to develop an order of selection for who would have first, second and subsequent priorities for receiving the limited services available. Like many other IL centers, our top priority was to keep young disabled adults from ending up in a nursing home.

Equal opportunities and community integration for severely disabled people in housing, employment, education, recreation, and civic activities, requires that an array of coordinated services are available simultaneously. Accessible transportation, affordable and accessible housing, accessible communication systems, attendant services, reasonable assistive technology, and accessible public and educational facilities are all needed for a disabled person to be able to function independently as an integrated member of the community. One of the reasons why communities, especially rural communities, are lagging so far behind in providing the kinds of services that are needed, is that too much of the resources being spent on programs for people with disabilities are still being spent on large institutions rather than community based programs. For example, until recently, of all federal reimbursements to states for the care of mentally retarded and developmentally delayed persons, 75% of the money went to large institutions where 3% of the mentally retarded people were living (Ferguson, Hibbard, Leinen, and Schaff, 1990). Programs for people with mental illness are even more biased toward institutions, since in that field there has not yet developed a network of community based services that addresses the need of these people for integrated housing and employment.

Effective centers for Independent Living provide community education about disability issues. The local press is often invited to a community IL center to get a story from a Disability Rights perspective. But it is not easy for disability activists to get their story reported, and if it is included, the tone of it is often changed from a Disability Rights issue to a story that is celebrating a disabled hero or calling attention to the inspirational courage of person who is overcoming severe obstacles and "not letting a disability get him down." The inability of the press to see disabled people as an integral part of a community's cultural and political life, is an accurate reflection of the relationship between communities and most of their disabled citizens. As long as the physical and attitudinal barriers are allowed to exist, a disabled person cannot participate in community activities as if they are ordinary events in that person's life. The disabled person feels excluded by the community, and the community ignores and forgets about its disabled citizens.

Children with disabilities who are still in school do not have many role models of competent and mature disabled adults who are trusted members of the community and who are going about their lives in an ordinary way. Special education programs often harm rather than help disabled children's social integration and acceptance by their non-disabled peers. Feelings of loneliness and insecurity paired with delayed social development are too often secondary characteristics of disabled kids. Independent Living programs with their emphasis on peer counseling offer at least the opportunity for an alternative peer group and a chance to find adult role models.

Since most of the IL centers that have been established so far are located in or near urban centers, it is the urban cultural settings that mostly have shaped the thinking of the leaders in the Independent Living Movement. Some of the advocacy agendas of these programs are unacceptable and even disturbing to disabled people with leadership potentials whose sense of cultural connections have rural rather than urban roots. These two groups of people have not yet started a dialogue or even discovered that they need to communicate. Somehow the rural, or non-urban, points of view need to become better articulated for what they can contribute to the development of the Independent Living and Disability Rights movements. One way of promoting this would be to attempt to set up Independent Living centers in rural areas and to let the local needs of the communities shape both the activities and the rhetoric of these centers, while still maintaining the basic elements of consumer control and advocacy.

A large number of existing centers for Independent Living are funded by Title VII, Part B, grants from the Department of Education channeled through the Rehabilitation Services Administration. Next year, 1991-92, it is quite possible that a large number of these grants will be opened up for renewed competition. It also would seem reasonable that areas which have not benefited from IL services before, might have an advantage in the application process. Programs that receive funding under this title must be governed and administered by disabled people. The governing body must be a non-profit agency that is based on consumer control, that is, at least 51% of the members of the board of directors must be people with disabilities. Information about the competitive call for proposals to start new IL centers should be brought to disabled people with leadership abilities who live in rural areas of this country and who have yet not joined this movement nor helped shape its message or stake out the direction of its course.

There is a severe crisis of leadership in the Independent Living Movement at this time. As the number of programs and individuals belonging to the IL movement has grown, so has diversity and the need for a clearly articulated set of common goals. The struggle to make sure that the American with Disabilities Act would become law has provided a clear rallying point for the disability community for some time, and now that it is over, disability activists must work even harder to identify the issues that will help the Movement go forward. The lack of clear mandates from its constituents is but one of the reasons that the IL movement is suffering from a shortage of strong leaders. Working in an IL program does not provide much in terms of job security since these centers are often funded by federal and/or foundation grants and other "soft" support from the local communities. A large number of disabled people have moved on from leadership positions in the IL movement to more secure and often highly visible positions within rehabilitation services programs, universities and other institutions that can offer greater stability and other employment benefits as well as opportunities to influence the development of disability policy within established agencies and government structures.

While a movement of disabled people into appropriate positions within other segments of society was one of the goals that the original Center for Independent Living was striving to accomplish, the current trend of constantly loosing its best leaders, makes it very difficult for the IL movement to keep its momentum and politically sensitive focus. Some of the leaders among disabled people who may have first found their personal purpose and agenda through contacts with the IL movement, think that in general, centers for Independent Living have ended up placing too much emphasis on services for individuals while de-emphasize community advocacy. Thus, for some people IL was the place where they first started to think about disability issues and to develop the ideas that for them would come to constitute the broader and more important Disability Rights Movement.

The Independent Living and Disability Rights movements, while perhaps differing in scope over time, sprung from the same need for people with disabilities to speak up for their rights as citizens. Together these two movements make up the civil rights movement for Americans with disabilities. Ed Roberts, the "father" of Independent Living, who organized the first Center for Independent Living in Berkley, saw the Movement as "the wave of protest against segregation and discrimination and an affirmation of the right and ability of persons with disabilities to share fully in the responsibilities and joys of our society" (Roberts, 1977).

The Disability Rights Movement was born in the wake of, and benefited greatly from following the Civil Rights Movement, the Women's Movement, and a number of other social movements, such as the Consumer Movement. A number of similarities and differences can be seen when comparing these different movements. While the Civil Rights and the Women's movements had a relatively easy time defining the groups that they represented, the Disability Rights Movement has had an extremely difficult time coming up with an understanding of who the individuals would be that should be included in the defining group. The definition of who is and is not disabled, is in part a matter of personal choice and identity. A person with an invisible disability, for example, has the choice of identifying with being disabled or passing as non-disabled in most social situations. The similarities between these three civil rights movements are easily identified in areas like discrimination, segregation, lack of equal opportunities, and low status. Disabled people have learned to articulate their concern about these issues, in part, from the black Civil Rights and the Women's movements.

Being a member of a group that is denied its rights and is suffering from discrimination, does not automatically foster insights into the oppression, nor the ability to provide leadership to end it. Rather, the more effective the oppression, the less likely the group would be to develop a successful civil rights movement of its own. When considering most people with disabilities, the general perception is likely to be that they would need help from others--professionals or parents--in order to claim their rights. While this may always be the case for some disability groups, it may also be less true than first believed. Becoming your own best advocate can be and must be learned, from experiences and luck and inspirations, or from

Special education teachers in rural areas have daily contacts with young disabled people who are not likely to have heard about any of the issues discussed in this paper. If information about the Independent Living and Disability Rights movements could be incorporated into the curriculum in such a way that special education students could learn about the issues, and learn to become self advocates, this might empower some of the students to take charge of their lives and develop their potential leadership abilities. Every disabled person with leadership potential is needed in the Independent Living and Disability Rights movements. Special education teachers could help develop these potential leaders. And every person, disabled or not, leader or not, who speaks out for full and equal access in the community, is helping to end discrimination and segregation of people with disabilities in the places where folks live, work, learn, travel, and play.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Gloria M. Palma
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

Gloria M. Palma

Physical education for individuals with disabilities in Washington State's rural school districts

The inclusion of physical education in the mandates of the federal legislation reflects the importance accorded to physical education in the minds of those designing these national programs. As a result of the enactment of federal legislation, physical education was intended to become an integral part of every disabled individual's educational program. However, although physical education is to be provided for individuals with disabilities receiving special education services, regardless of setting or size of school, to date, not all educational agencies have complied with the legal requirement regarding the inclusion of physical education in special education programming (Churton, 1987).

In addition, various studies have documented that the delivery of special education services in rural school systems is adversely affected by the unique characteristics of the rural setting (Cole & Rankin, 1981; Helge, 1984; O'Neal & Beckner, 1982). These characteristics include but are not limited to geographical location (Kirmer, et. al, 1984; Swanson, 1988), topographical characteristics (Helge, 1984), population sparsity (Carmichael, 1982; Edington & Edington, 1982) and economy (Helge, 1984; Treadway, 1984). Due to diverse characteristics rural communities do not present a single, unified or undifferentiated position on any characteristics (Dillman & Hobes, 1982). The combination of variables unique to each district affects the district's educational programming and implementation. This study was developed to investigate physical education programs for individuals with disabilities in Washington State's rural school districts.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate the nature and extent of physical education programs for individuals with disabilities in Washington State's very small and small rural public school districts. The investigation also focused on specific rural variables and their relationship to physical education programs for individuals with disabilities.

Procedure

Respondents

The subjects in this study were 185 superintendents from Washington State's very small and small rural public school districts. There was no selective process nor random sampling of subjects because the study involved all of the superintendents in the State's rural public school districts.

Questionnaire

A survey technique was utilized to collect the data for this study. The questionnaire contained 43 closed and partially close-ended questions which addressed the three major areas of (a) characteristics of rural school districts, (b) nature and extent of physical education for individuals with disabilities and (c) relation among rural variables and physical education programs for individuals with disabilities.

Analysis of Data

A PC File data-based program was created to enter the data in an A T & T 6300 computer. While the answers to research questions were descriptively summarized, Chi-square analyses were conducted to determine if the relationship between specific variables were significant at .05 level. A VAX digital computer was utilized for the Chi-square analyses.

Results

Characteristics of rural school districts

Of 185 subjects, 128 responded resulting in a response rate of 69.2 percent. Of the 128 responses, 70.3 percent (n = 90) enrolled individuals with disabilities; 58.0 percent (n = 52) of those districts with students with disabilities offered a program in physical education for disabled students. As shown in Table 1, there are 158 very small (85.4%) and 27 small (14.6%) school districts in the State of Washington (Smith, 1987). Of 128 school districts responding to the survey, the largest number of responses, n = 49, (38.3%) came from districts which enrolled 151-500 students, followed by nearly a quarter, n = 31, (24.2%) which enrolled 150 or fewer students. Although the original number of school districts listed two under the sub-category of 2000 or more student population, three of the returned survey (2.3%) indicated a population of 2000 or more students.

There were 90 out of 128 responding school districts (70.3%) which enrolled students with disabilities. As shown in Table 2, more than a third of the 90 school districts, n = 31 (34.4%) enrolled 151 to 500 students, while fewer than a tenth, n = 3 (7.9%) had a student population of more than 2000 students. Fewer than half of the 90 districts, n = 42 (46.7%) were located in communities with 1000 or less population, while less than a sixth, n = 13 (14.4%) were located in communities with 4000 or more population.

In terms of location, more than half of the 90 districts, n = 47 (52.2%) were 30 or less miles, while only three percent, n = 3 (3.3%) were more than 91 miles from the nearest non-rural school district. Fewer than half of the 90 districts, n = 38 (42.2%) had more than 20 students with disabilities, while more than a third, n = 35 (38.9%) enrolled 10 or fewer students.

Table 1 Number and Percentage of Respondents to the Survey (n = 128)

School Districts Per Enrollment Category		No. of Respondents	
	n	n	%
1 - 150	57	31	24.2
151 - 500	62	49	38.3
501 - 1000	39	26	20.4
1001 - 2000	25	19	14.8
2001 - 2500	2	3	2.3

School Districts with a Program in Physical Education for Students with Disabilities

Description of School Districts

Of the 90 school districts which enrolled students with disabilities, 52 (58.0%) offered a program in physical education for disabled students. As shown in Table 3, demographically, more than a third, n = 17 (32.7%) of the districts enrolled 10 or more students with disabilities, while less than half, n = 25 (48.1%) enrolled 20 or more. Geographically, more than two-quarters of the districts, n = 27 (52.0%) were closely situated (30 or less miles), and fewer than a tenth, n = 2 (3.8%) were remotely located from the nearest non-rural school district (91 or more miles).

Bases of student placement, assessment and IEP

The 52 respondents whose districts offered a program in physical education for students with disabilities were asked how students were placed in physical education classes. Students were placed in a mainstreamed type setting in majority of the districts, n = 41 (78.7%), while fewer than a quarter of the 52 districts, n = 11 (21.3%) provided separate classes in physical education.

Students were placed in physical education classes based on grade level in a quarter of school districts, n = 13 (25.0%). Fewer than a fifth, n = 7 (13.5%) used ability as the basis for student placement.

Table 2. Description of School Districts Which Enrolled Students With Disabilities (n = 90)

Variables	Number	%
General student population		
150 or Less	19	21.1
151 - 500	31	34.4
501 - 1000	21	23.3
1001 - 1500	9	10.0
1501 - 2000	7	7.9
2000 or More	3	3.3
Population size of communities where districts were located		
1000 or Less	42	46.7
1001 - 1999	17	18.9
2000 - 2999	13	14.4
3000 - 3999	5	5.6
4000 - 4999	4	4.4
5000 or More	9	10.0
Distance of districts from nearest non-rural school district		
30 or Less miles	47	52.2
31 - 60 miles	30	33.3
61 - 90 miles	7	7.8
91 - 120 miles	-	-
120 or More miles	3	3.5
Population size of disabled students		
10 or Less	35	38.9
11 - 15	16	17.8
16 - 20	1	1.1
20 or More	38	42.2

Nearly all of the 52 school districts, n = 49 (94.0%) assessed the motor ability of students with disabilities. More than half of 30 respondents (53.3%) indicated assessing the motor performance level of the students on a regular basis. The motor performance level of students was assessed by physical therapists in a third of 44 school districts, n = 16 (36.4%), by teachers of physical education in less than a fifth, n = 7 (15.9%) and by adapted physical education specialists in fewer than a tenth, n = 5 (11.3%) of the districts. While the assessment results were interpreted by physical therapists in fewer than half of the districts, n = 23 (52.3%), adapted physical education specialists interpreted the results in less than a fifth of the districts, n = 7 (15.9%). (Refer to Table 4).

Table 3 School Districts With a Program in Physical Education for Students with Disabilities (n = 52)

Variables	Number	%
Population size of students with disabilities		
10 or Less	17	32.7
11 - 15	7	13.5
16 - 20	3	3.0
20 or More	25	48.1
Distance of districts from nearest non-rural school district		
30 or Less miles	27	52.0
31 - 60 miles	20	38.5
61 - 90 miles	3	5.7
91 - 120 miles	-	-
120 - More miles	2	3.8

Table 4 Professionals Who Assessed the Motor Performance Level of Students with Disabilities (n = 44)

Professionals	Assess	%	Interpret	%
Teacher in physical education	7	15.9	9	20.5
Adapted physical education	5	11.3	7	15.9
Physical therapist	16	36.4	23	52.3
Occupational therapist	1	2.3	5	11.3
Psychologist	3	6.8		
Combination of professionals	12	27.3	-	-

The majority of 49 respondents, n = 44 (89.9%) indicated developing an individualized education program (IEP) in physical education, while more than a tenth, n = 5 (10.2%) did not (See table 5). The respondents were also asked how they developed the IEP in physical education. Of 27 respondents to the question, three quarters, n = 24 (88.9%) indicated developing the IEP as a part of special education classroom IEP, and a quarter, n = 3 (11.1%) indicated having a separate IEP in physical education.

Among 37 respondents who named the professionals which had the responsibility of developing the IEP in the districts, fewer than a third, n = 11 (29.7%) cited the teachers of physical education. Less than a quarter named the physical therapist, n = 8 (21.6%).

Table 5 Individualized Education Program in Physical Education

Number of districts with IEP (n = 49)	n	%
With IEP	44	89.8
Without IEP	5	10.2
Nature of IEP (n = 27)		
Part of classroom IEP	24	88.9
Separate from classroom IEP	3	11.1
Professionals who developed IEP (n = 37)		
Teacher in physical education	11	29.7
Physical therapist	8	21.6
Occupational therapist	4	10.8
Psychologist	8	21.6
Combination of professionals	6	16.3

Personnel responsible for teaching physical education for students with disabilities

Various professionals had the primary responsibility for teaching physical education for disabled students in the districts. As shown in Table 6, 34 out of 49 respondents (69.4%) named the regular physical education teacher for teaching physical education for disabled students in the districts. Fewer than a tenth, n = 4 (8.2%) named the adapted physical education specialist.

The retention years of the teachers was addressed in the survey to which 40 subjects responded. Of 40 responses, more than half, n = 22 (55.0%) indicated having the teachers of physical education for disabled students for more than six years, while a tenth, n = 4 (10/0%) indicated having the teachers in their districts for less than a year.

Physical education facilities and funding

In terms of adequacy of facilities, nearly all, n = 42 (94.0%) of 50 respondents indicated having adequate facilities in physical education. More than half of the facilities in 48 school districts, n = 27 (56.3%) were school based, while more than a third, n = 19 (39.5%) were a combined school and community based facilities.

Of 40 responses to modification of physical education facilities and equipment, more than half indicated having modified their facilities and equipment, n = 25 (51.0%) for accessibility to students with disabilities. The largest number of responses named state fund for physical education, n = 18 (46.2%) and state fund for special education, n = 15 (38.5%) as sources of funding for physical education for students with disabilities. (Shown in Table 7).

Table 6 Personnel Responsible in Teaching Physical Education for Students with Disabilities

Teachers (n = 49)	n	%
Special education teacher	18	36.7
Regular physical education teacher	34	69.4
Adapted physical education teacher	4	8.2
Physical therapist	12	24.5
Occupational therapist	9	18.4
Speech and audiologist	3	6.1
Counselor	3	6.1
Teacher aide	5	10.1
Retention Years of Teachers (n = 40)		
Less than a year	4	10.0
1 - 3 years	7	17.5
4 - 6 years	7	17.5
More than 6 years	22	55.0

Table 7 Source and Percentage of Funding in Physical Education (n = 39)

Variables	n	%
Funding Agencies		
State fund for physical education	18	46.1
State fund for special education	15	38.5
State's fund for education	8	20.5
Local fund	8	20.5
Percentage of Fund Districts Received		
24 percent	5	12.8
50 percent	-	-
75 percent	5	12.8
100 percent	29	74.4

Statistical Analyses

Chi square analyses were utilized to determine the relationship of physical education for individuals with disabilities and funding, student and community populations and geographical location at .05 significance level. Two significant relationships among variables were found: (a) the retention rate of teachers of physical education were significantly higher in school districts which were closer to the nearest non-rural school districts than those which were remotely located and (b) school districts which had a program in regular physical education were significantly likely to offer a program in physical education for disabled students than those which did not have regular physical education.

Discussion and Recommnedation

Rural school districts are generally described in the literature as diverse and distinct from each other (Hobbs, et. al., 1980; Tillman, 1983). Such description did not apply to rural school districts in the State of Washington. The majority of 128 school districts in the study showed similar geographical and demographic characteristics. As a result, their educational needs did not seem to vary in the area of physical education for students with disabilities.

The State of Washington has nine Educational Service Districts (ESDs) whose main responsibilities include administrative and instructional support services to 296 public school districts and all state approved private schools. Under the ESD's special service cooperatives, the services of special education specialists are available through contractual agreement. Adapted physical education was not in the list of special education services provided by the ESDs. If the services of adapted physical education specialists are made available to the districts through the ESDs even on a contractual basis, there is a probability that school districts which do not have physical education for disabled students may offer such program in the near future.

Another state-wide core service of the ESDs is in-service education. If adapted physical education specialists are hired by the ESDs to conduct in-service training among school administrators and regular classroom teachers from districts which did not have a program in physical education for disabled students, there is a possibility that these districts may include physical education in their special education services in the future. If the problem was a lack of financial resources to support a physical education specialist position in the district, professionals who received an in-service training in physical education could fill in the responsibility for adapted physical education specialists in the districts.

The provision of both regular physical education and physical education for students with disabilities are under the responsibility of the school districts. Although the findings showed that more than half of the 90 districts which enrolled students with disabilities offered a program in physical education for these students, to date, more than a third still do not have a program. Nearly half of 29 respondents whose districts did not offer a program in physical education for disabled students indicated not having physical education due to the small population of disabled students in the districts. This finding partly supported previous studies which indicated that population sparsity affects the educational program in rural school districts.

Students were placed in physical education based on grade and class levels. This finding seemed to indicate that an assessment of the motor performance level of disabled students was being conducted only to comply with the legal requirement. The purpose of assessment, that is, to determine appropriate placement and educational program for the individual, is not being realized. In effect, regardless of the student's ability, the student is mainstreamed in regular physical education based on grade or class levels.

Physical education services were provided by non-specialists in most of the school districts. These services include assessment, development of the IEP and teaching of physical education. The concern of educators regarding the preparation of non-specialists to take over the responsibility for special education specialists in rural school districts is also a concern in this study. Although the non-specialists who provided physical education for students with disabilities specialized in physical education and other related fields, the nature and extent of specialization of the non-specialists still varied from that of an adapted physical education specialist. Adapted physical education specialists have been professionally trained and therefore have the competencies to meet appropriate placement, activities and instructional approaches for individuals with disabilities.

Although physical physical or occupational therapists are knowledgeable on motor ability of individuals, the therapist's orientation leans heavily on the medical field. The therapists may lack the competency to provide adequate behavioral and instructional approaches for effective programming in the least restrictive environment.

Both the Educational Service District and the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction hold an essential role in the development of educational programs in Washington's public school system. These agencies are in a key position to influence the educational programs that are offered in the State's public school districts. These agencies are therefore encouraged to join collaborative efforts to develop an awareness among the school's administrators regarding a need for physical education services for rural students with disabilities. A provision of physical education program for rural students with disabilities in the State will not only enhance the student's motor development but their successful integration in the mainstream of society as well.

Similar to previous studies on rural special education, it was also found in this study that geographical location was significantly related to teacher employment and retention in rural districts. One of the reasons for difficulty of teacher retention in rural areas is the lack of rural orientation during the teacher preparation years. Most preservice curricula are focused on the needs of the urban teacher and of the urban system. The uniqueness of rural needs and condition demand a differential approach and management to the educational process.

Higher institutions of education should redefine their focus to include preparation of teacher for various employment opportunities including rural school system.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Sonya Resa
Co-Presenter: Renee Grassino
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

Sonia Resa
Renee Grassino
Lamar Middle School
Lamar, Missouri 64759

PROJECT KIND HELP

Project KIND Help (Kids in Need Deserve Help) is a three phase program designed to meet the needs of those students who are at risk and not being served by Special Education at the Lamar Middle School in grades 5, 6, 7, and 8. The first phase provides a telephone Homework Hotline that is available 24 hours per day for students and parents to obtain daily assignments. The second phase includes a half-day KIND Help Resource Teacher to assist students who will be scheduled one hour per day in that class. Phase three is a one hour after-school tutorial program which meets two days each week for identified at-risk students.

The Homework Hotline (telecommunications) is a new concept by which parents can monitor their child's daily homework directly from his/her teacher with the intent to aid in improving grades. For rural families, the Homework Hotline also provides homework assignments when a student is ill, thus preventing the parent from having to drive to the school to obtain what their student has missed. It allows parents to plan their week according to school activities which are listed on the hotline. The hotline will call parents to send positive messages about their child or inform them of their child's absence.

The hotline serves about 430 students in grades 5-8. Since its installation in September 1990, the hotline has averaged 52 calls per day. Equipment for the Homework Hotline was purchased from U.S. Telecom International, Inc. located in Joplin, Missouri. This included a software package with an extended warranty, which cost approximately $2,150.00. A computer and peripherals were purchased from Lowery Office Equipment, Joplin, Missouri. This cost for that equipment was $1,600.00. A new telephone line and phone were installed to handle incoming calls from the community and outgoing calls from the faculty.

Parents who are informed about their child's progress and events of the school tend to be more involved in their child's education. One parent stated, "The hotline has opened the lines of communication between my son and me because he knows I can always call the if he does not tell me about his homework."

The half-day KIND Help resource teacher addresses academic and self-esteem needs of no more than ten students per hour who are at risk of failing in Math, Science, Social Studies, Reading and Language Arts. The resource room allows those students who ride a bus, and would not be able to participate in an after-school tutoring program, the opportunity to have access to the extra help that is needed. This class is part of their daily schedule which gives them a daily check on what has to be completed and what has been completed.

Both positive reinforcement and parent-school communication is stressed to help increase student achievement. Privileges, certificates, posters, and snacks are used as incentives. Parents are invited for an initial meeting to review guidelines. Articles are sent home stressing parental involvement in encouraging academic improvement. Parents are called by the KIND Help instructor each mid-quarter to discuss student progress.

Since the beginning of the program, 27 students have participated. Out of those 24 students, one was tested and eventually placed in special education. Three of the students have moved to another school district. When comparing the grades earned before KIND Help to those after, improvement was found. An example, before the program the student had a "C" and after the program, the student had a "B+". This would be an improvement in their grades.

Phase three is the after-school tutoring program which is conducted by two teachers and had a teacher/pupil ratio of 1 to 10. The program offers students extra help in understanding concepts and completing their daily assignments. The larger numbers found in rural classrooms limits the amount of help "at risk" students can receive. After school tutoring provides that needed independent practice and assistance that improves achievement. Many of the students need help with organizational skills and study skills. This program also works closely with the student's regular teachers to assess the student's academic needs.

Thirteen students have participated in the after-school tutoring program. Out of those 13 students, ten have shown an improvement in grades. The overall average improvement for the after-school program was an increase of four letter grades. This was obtained by comparing the grades earned by the students during second semester of the last school year to the grades earned after enrolling in the program.

At the February 1990 National Governor's Association Meeting, the nation's governors endorsed national education goals. The goals include competency testing for grades 4,8, and 12, a 90% graduation rate, and they assured the United States students will be first in global competitions for science and math.

Research shows that students with high failure rates are potential school drop-outs who, in turn, are in need of more community services, job training, and Aid to Dependent Children assistance.

Success breeds success. Lamar would like to turn the failure rates around and help students experience success so that success will extend beyond their school career.

A characteristic of an effective school is a school that is in partnership with parents and community. Our school is doing this through the Homework Hotline which provides positive communication with parents, sharing responsibility for achievement, and encouraging parent support of school events. All these factors attribute to the improvement of the child's self-concept.

A grant was received from Missouri Incentives for School Excellence Program which funded this project for Lamar Middle School during the 1990-91 school year.

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: William A. Phillips
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

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DEVELOPING A STRONG BOND BETWEEN EDUCATION AND LOCAL BUSINESSES IN RURAL AREAS

INTRODUCTION

The main focus of this model is a Small Business Development Center located in a rural community college. However this model can be used by any group in an educational setting that is truly interested in involving the local rural businesses and industrial communities in the education of today's young person. The model is located in a rural county area where the two major communities are less than 20,000 population each, and the balance of the communities in the county range from a population of 500 - 7,500.

SMALL BUSINESS STATISTICAL INFORMATION

In a report sent to President Reagan from the United States Small Business Administration (SBA) it was stated that 99% of all businesses in the United States can be classified as small businesses. According to the report "Small Business and Economy of the 1980s," "small businesses vary substantially in size and character." The small business of today can be the one-person shop or service business up to a manufacturing plant with up to 500 persons. The small business structures are defined by the federal government according to their particular industry. This report will deal primarily with small businesses in a rural county of Arizona with an average of 1-40 employees.

The Small Business Administration states that a small business is:

1. Independently owned
2. Not dominate in its field of operation
3. Operated for profit
4. Within the size standards for the particular industry or service area. They are:
    a. Retail & Service - Sales less than $2 million
    b. Wholesaling - Sales less than $9 million
    c. Manufacturing - Less than 500 employees
    d. Construction - Sales less than $9.5 million

How important is the small business to the economy of the United States and to the economy in which you live? These are statistics according to a publication from Pacific Bell titled "A Tribute to Small Business - America's Growth Industry" published in 1987.

> "...there are 15.2 million non-farm businesses in the United States."
>
> "Of the estimated 14.5 million jobs that have been created since 1981, nearly all have come from small business starts and expansions."
>
> "In recent years small business has been providing two out of three new workers their first job."
>
> "The contribution of small business in today's economy expands far beyond its traditional role in creating jobs- an analysis by the National Science Foundation has shown that small business has been a more prolific source of innovations per research and development dollar than large business."

The responsibility of education to assist in the economic development of the small business and business community is no more evident than the fact that industry spends $22 billion per year in retraining our adult population including high school graduates and dropouts in basic education such as writing a coherent memo, using simple arithmetic and reading techniques.

In rural areas small business is the backbone of the economy since it is difficult for small rural areas to bring in new businesses or industries in the area because of the availability of space in major metropolitan areas. Wally Cadow the economic development specialist for Casa Grande told me that it is difficult to bring in new industry into the area, when the company would have to build a plant to get started when in the Phoenix metropolitan area there are over 480,000 square feet of industrial space available immediately at very competitive rates.

The University of Arizona, Chambers of Commerce , Arizona Department of Commerce and Central Arizona College SBDC are doing a Business Retention & Expansion Study to find out what small businesses are saying in the local communities, and what the community or educational institutions can do to help the business stay in the community or expand.

DEMOGRAPHICS OF PINAL COUNTY

Pinal County is a county of 114,000+ persons with over 40% of the population being either Hispanic or Native American. In Pinal county over 62% of the 1619+ businesses are either of a retail or service orientation. The county also has three distinct business orientations. The eastern side of the county which is separated by a small mountain range is primarily mining with support businesses for the major mining employers in the area. The western side of the county is located between Phoenix and Tucson and is the main shopping and industrial area of the county. The third area is located in Apache Junction which is adjacent to the Phoenix Metropolitan area and is primarily a residential area with supporting retail and service businesses.

Population of the eastern side of the county lives primarily in the unincorporated areas except for two major communities which have less than 2,500 population in each, whereas the western side of the county has the major population areas. Casa Grande the has almost 20,000 and Apache Junction has less than 19,000 population. Pinal County has one other major distinction and that is that the largest prison in the State is located at the county seat in Florence, with the intention of the State to enlarge the prison to twice it's current size.

The county is 5334 square miles with 192,667 acres under cultivation, and 74% of the land in the county is owned by either the State or Federal Government.

Many of the students that graduate or drop-out from school (30%-50%) stay in the county and take what jobs they can find, and if they are on the eastern side of the county they plan to enter work in the mines, where continuous work depends on the price of copper.

SMALL BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT CENTERS (SBDC)

The Small Business Development Centers were started nationally in 1977 as a method of providing services and assistance to the local small business persons in the communities they served. The funding of the SBDC's was partially provided (40%-45%) by the Small Business Administration, with the balance by the institution where the SBDC was housed.

By 1988 the program had grown to 499 sub-centers serving 128,000 clients. This information is from the United States General Accounting Office who made a study of the SBDC clients. Three of the most important statistics that came from the study were:

* 69% of clients were satisfied with the counseling they received.
* 76% stated they would contact the SBDC for assistance again.
* 82% would recommend the SBDC program to others

In a presentation by Larry R. Bramblett, Director of the SBDC at The University of Georgia to the National Advisory Council for the U.S. Small Business Administration he stated that:

"Embedded in this (SBDC) concept are certain basic principles, a few of which include:"

1. "The brightest hope of the American economy resides in the small business sector."

2. "A partnership between government, business and ....education is feasible."

3. "In the long run and in benefit/cost terms the Program will not cost the United States one dollar. Rather, the program will have a high economic payoff."

It is interesting that the SBDC's today are being added in significant numbers and that they are having a significant impact on the small business community, which has been proven as the vital link in the growth of the United States.

ARIZONA SBDC NETWORK

The Arizona SBDC Network was started in 1988 with the State Director being located at Gateway Community College, one of the eight community colleges in the Maricopa Community College District. In 1988 there were 3 SBDC sub-centers. The 10th sub-center was added in January of 1991 at Yavapai Community College.

The Arizona SBDC Network is one of eight State Community College SBDC's in the nation. The Arizona SBDC looks at small business in Arizona the being vital to the state's economic well being and to the economic growth of the areas in which small businesses operate. More than 98% of the businesses in Arizona fall into the category of the SBA small business guidelines, and in Arizona there has been added the figure that the small businesses generally will have less than 100 employees, and yet small business in Arizona hires well over 60% of the workers in private industry.

According to Dave Smith, State Director of the Arizona SBDC Network, "Failures of small businesses are a cost to the entire community and successful small businesses add to the overall economic health of the citizens of the State. Small businesses play a particularly vital role in the rural counties of Arizona. In these counties, the small business community provides an even greater percentage of jobs than the statewide average."

In the first brochure that was published by the Arizona Small Business Network it stated "It's time your business took advantage of the government". This is an ongoing theme of the 10 sub-centers in the Arizona SBDC Network. The services offered to the small businesses in the State are:

* Individual Counseling (No Charge)
* Workshops & Seminars ($5-$25)
* Small Business Library
* Small business classes
* Resource personnel

Because of the sub-center growth to 10 centers in 3 years, the all counties in Arizona are served by a sub-center of the Arizona SBDC Network. Several of the Sub-Centers are developing specialized libraries and consultants to deal with areas of business interest that is not a high priority of many businesses, but still important enough to need the resource in the network of sub-centers. An example of this is the Rio Salado Community College resource of international trade and importing/exporting resources. Another is the Farm Management Program at Eastern Arizona College or the Quality Assurance/Management resources through Gateway Community College. What makes the Arizona SBDC Network so unique is the resources available to any sub-center client through the cooperativeness of all of the sub-centers in the network.

CENTRAL ARIZONA COLLEGE SBDC

The Central Arizona College SBDC was started March 1, 1990. The initial goal of the center was to serve 75 business clients in Pinal County during 1990 and present 15 training sessions with 150 attendees. We completed the 1990 year with 78 counseling

The counseling cases are defined as:

> Continuous Cases: These are cases where there is a continuous consulting relationship between the SBDC and the small business. This is the area of consulting that the SBA is most interested in.

One-Time-Cases: Cases where a person that is interested in starting a business, looking for financing, or an individual with a specific business question requests counseling session.

During 1990 we consulted with 41 persons one-time and 38 for at least two or more consulting sessions. During 1991 we have projected that we will complete 140 consulting cases with at least 80% being a continuous case.

The following are some of the businesses served by the Central Arizona College SBDC during the 1990 calender year.

TYPES OF BUSINESSES SERVED	ACTIVITY
Rural Shopping Center Development	$3.5 million loan
Start up Computer Consultant	Marketing Plan
Psychological Center	Marketing Plan
Mining Supply Retail Business	Buy Out Information
Restaurant	Management Plan
Ice Cream Shop	Expansion Plan
Field Crew Leader	Accounting for Taxes
Manufacturing Plant	Supervisory Training
Doughnut Shop	Advertising
General Store	Start Up
Convenience Store-New Owner	Business Purchase
Convenience Store - Franchise Start Up on Gila River Reservation	Start Up/Franchising
Audio/Television Sales & Repair	ITS Training
Cookie Shoppe	Promotion Plan
Medical Office	Business Plan
Real Estate Office	Recordkeeping
Mobile Home Sales	Start Up
Sewing Business	Expansion

Small Businesses that have contacted the SBDC for assistance can be classified in four major problem areas. They are:

1) Management
2) Financing
3) Accounting/Recordkeeping
4) Marketing

Management is one problem that is the most difficult to deal with since most owners feel that they do not have any problems with management of their business. But as a former owner of four successful businesses, I am acutely aware of the many problems of business management if you do not keep up on the many federal and state law changes. Yet management of the total business is the major problem and is the reason for over 70% of the business failures. A major area of concern that we have presented to the small business clients is the development of a business plan so that they (owners) will know when they have reached their goals, and can develop new goals for their business to strive for.

The other avenue of assistance is the small business workshops that are generally presented from 7am-9am and 6pm-9pm. The workshops are designed from an interest sheet that is sent through local Chamber of Commerce mailings. The reason for the time of the workshops is that this is the easiest time for rural small business owners to attend a training session. In Pinal County we have found that most small businesses require the owners most of the day. Average attendance of the workshops has been running from 6-10.

ADVISORY COMMITTEES AND SMALL BUSINESS

One of the methods we used to design the small business development program was the formation of a SBDC Program Advisory Committee. To start with we invited the Chamber of Commerce Executive Directors or President of the local Chamber of Commerce to become a member of the Advisory Committee. The use of Advisory Committees are not new, but the use of the Advisory Committee needs to be changed to reflect more of the needs of the business community.

The SBDC Advisory Committee is made up of 7 business persons and 2 individuals from the State Department of Education and State Community College Board who work primarily in business and industrial training. The 9 individuals are the voting members of the committee, with the SBDC Director as ex-officio and non-voting. In this way all recommendations are coming from the SBDC Advisory Committee and not the educational community.

As the SBDC Director I act as advisory to committee about information as to what the SBDC is doing in Pinal County to serve the small business community. What has the Advisory Committee done during 1990:

1. Reviewed and recommended what types of seminars are needed.

2. Suggested the Valley National Bank as a place to hold counseling sessions in rural areas.

3. Reviewed the SBDC brochure.

4. Reviewed and recommended goals to work toward in 1991.

The SBDC Advisory Committee is not only helpful in improving and strengthening your program but also give your program credence when you are talking to groups about what you are doing in your program. The last recommendation that has been recommended from the SBDC Advisory Committee is that because of the progress we have made this first year in our program that perhaps we should have 3 SBDC Advisory Committees serving each of the three major business areas in the county. This recommendation was approved by our Dean of Career Education and we are now in the process of developing 3 advisory committees for our program.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF THE CIRCUIT RIDER PROGRAM

All communities in rural areas can benefit from this model, but only if a commitment is made to involve the local business and industrial community on a practical basis, and not a "superficial" basis.

Small businesses in rural counties often feel like they are left out of the mainstream of the educational process even though they hire many of the graduates or drop-outs of the local public school or community college system - but very few people from the educational system ever come and ask the small business- person- what do you need our "graduates" to be able to do.

With the challenge to the educational structure that is surfacing all over the country it is time that all persons in a community start working together to provide for the future growth not only of the student but also of the community in which we live. One of the methods of working with the communities is to know and understand the small business community. Small business in this country makes up over 90% of all businesses and generates over 60% of all new jobs - yet we as educators look at "big" business and "big" universities to satisfy the total need of the economy, and this is not fair to the development of the student or the community.

John Dewey stated in his essay on a "Need for a Philosophy of Education" that traditional methods need to be changed and if not, "conformity then becomes the criterion by which the pupil is judged. Former Labor Secretary Elizabeth Dole stated at the National Alliance of Business Conference that we must take better care in preparing our "product" for the world of today. In an article written in 1912 by Edwin Cooley he stated that "no system of ......education will be complete that does not include a careful study of the vocations of a community open to youth." Are we as educator's really aware of what our local community offers to our graduates, and even more why we offer what we do?

The other statistic that we need to be concerned about is that industry spends over 22 BILLION DOLLARS each year in training and retraining of employees who are high school graduates or drop outs in basic education such as writing a coherent memo, using simple arithmetic and reading techniques. At the same time there is a 30% dropout rate nationwide in out public schools and as high as 50% in many of our urban schools. How much money would business and industry have on an annual basis to expand their businesses and create more job opportunities for the community if the educational structure spent more time out what the business and industrial community needed in their future employees?

The idea that the model of the SBDC's is necessary to create this linkage between the schools and business and industry is false. A commitment by the schools that they are going to find out what is needed in the community they serve. In a recent article in Nations' Business the following information was generated from the question:

"How Business Can Be Involved In Public Schools"

Provide Equipment	91%
Finance Technical Courses	85%
Give Employees Time To Teach	80%
Recommend School Improvements	72%
Business Leaders Run For Education Boards	65%

Business and Industry is ready - is the Educational Community really ready to involve them in the educational process. Remember that the product of education is the student, and the accountability of the student is the business and industrial community who hires them. This is a model - and it does work, but it takes time and commitment to overturn many fears of telling the small businesses of rural areas that "we" in education know what to do to educate todays' youth.

Former Secretary of Labor Elizabeth Dole stated that only 30% of the jobs in the 90's will require a four year degree - and this is up from 20% in the 70's. Yet we educate over 80% of our students to day (in most cases) to go to college, and the success of a school year is measured not on how many students are not on the "welfare" roles, but how many students scored in the upper 70% of the national tests, and how many students are going to college.

The Central Arizona College SBDC "Circuit Rider" program is only one method to remain in contact with the business community. The major value of this particular model is that we are in touch with the local small business community, and that is what is important. In the rural county small business is the major employer of our students. It is our responsibility as educators to provide incentives such as training needs required by small businesses by our institution. the only way we can do that is by working with them to meet their business needs. My favorite question to the small business person of the community is "How can I help you? You will be amazed with the response.

The only thing that it takes to develop the strong bond with the community is a little effort to meet the business person at least half way. Good Luck in your efforts to create that bond in your community.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: June Canty-Lemke
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

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HOW TO RECRUIT AND RETAIN TEACHERS IN RURAL OR SMALL SCHOOLS: WHY ADMINISTRATORS NEED TO KNOW!

Recruiting and retaining teachers are important tasks for any school district administrator; these tasks are of tremendous importance for administrators in small or rural school districts. The attrition rate is rural and small schools is extremely high; Helge and Marrs (1981, p. 12) reported a turnover rate of 30-50% in rural areas, culminating in a complete turnover every three years, with some districts reporting positions that have been vacant for long periods of time. How are school administrators prepared for these challenges?

This paper will describe a research project conducted during Summer and Fall 1990. The objectives of this project were to:

1. identify all accredited institutions which grant administrative services credentials,
2. identify courses in those credential programs which present information related to teacher induction (required and elective courses),
3. identify courses in those credential programs which present information related to teacher induction in rural or small schools (required and elective courses),
4. gather feedback from administrative services program directors related to their perceptions of the importance of these topics, and
5. identify which institutions plan to incorporate these topics into their programs in the near future.

The project was funded as a summer research grant by the University of Redlands. The work began by trying to identify all four year plus institutions in the United States and its territories which are accredited (regionally or nationally) in the area of education. I had already discovered that there was no one listing of all institutions in the U.S. which grant administrative services credentials. I worked with the data specialist at Higher Education Publications, Inc. (HEP) to design a computer search and finally was able to print the names and addresses of these 1,532 institutions on pressure sensitive labels. I designed a cover letter and questionnaire and then conducted a random sampling of all institutions identified and mailed to 306 randomly selected institutions. The response deadline was set for August 17; a self-addressed, stamped envelope was included to encourage response.

One hundred thirty-five responses (44% return rate) were received, with most arriving after the due date. I found that the deadline was inappropriate because so many of the program directors were away for July and August and did not respond until September. Out of those responding, 81 (60%) were really ineligible to respond because they had no administrative services credential program, even though they were accredited schools of education. Some of these respondents went ahead and made comments anyway. Fifty-four (40%) were eligible and provided useful data.

In examining the data collected, I focused on three basic questions:

1. is this topic (teacher induction) covered adequately in these programs?
2. do program directors see this as an important topic? and
3. do program directors see a difference in approach for rural and small school administrators? Are they aware that there should be a difference?

Sixteen schools (30%) had courses in which teacher induction in generic settings was addressed. Twenty-two schools (41%) had courses in which teacher induction in generic and rural or small schools were addressed. Four schools (7%) reported they had coursework specific to teacher induction in rural or small schools. Twelve schools reported no administrative services program (thus no coursework related to teacher induction), but made comments about the importance of the topic (ten favorable, 2 unfavorable). The most interesting data are the comments made by the program directors.

The most interesting finding was that all the administrative services programs I sampled address the topics related to teacher induction in either a major or minor focus in at least one of their courses. No one disputes the need for this preparation. I also found, however, that very few institutions address the differences in teacher induction when teachers are employed in rural or small schools. The same courses are taught to all prospective administrators. Several program directors commented that they were aware of the differences, but were suffering from a lack of resources in developing courses specific to the needs of administrators and teachers in rural or small schools. Others commented that they tried to address specific issues in their regular courses when questions specific to rural or small schools arose.

Much more study of this data is called for and results will be presented at the 1991 meeting of the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium.

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Cheryl Prichard
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: ~~10:30am - 12:00pm~~
2:45pm - 3:45pm

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Recruiting and Retaining Speech-Language Pathologists in Rural Areas

Recruitment and the subsequent retention of Speech Language Pathologists (SLPs) to work in rural areas is one of the on-going challenges facing special education administrators across our country. Several investigators (Helge 1983; Dopheide, et.al. 1986; Condon, et.al 1986) as well as various reports from state departments of education have reported speech-language pathology positions to be among those most difficult to fill. In an attempt to staff positions, standards for employment in some rural areas have been lowered. When compared to more urban settings rural areas typcially have a higher percentage of unqualified personnel, lower levels of certification, and higher rates of temporary and emergency certifications (Helge 1983). The American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (1988) has cited the rural/remote population as one of the populations underserved by speech-language pathologists.

West Virginia is a rural state and has long experienced difficulty recruting and retaining qualified SLPs for positions in its schools. The most recent supply and demand data available from WVDE reveals that 30 of the 55 (54.5%) county school systems as of fall 1989, were reporting shortages of SLPs. This figure may actually be an underestimate of the need since only vacancies for currently existing positions can be reported. In some instances more SLPs are needed than there are positions available (Valentine, 1991). In West Virginia, a master's degree in speech pathology is required for certification to practice in a school setting. One indicator of the extent of need for qualified SLPs is the number of individuals employed in public school settings who are working under "permit" status rather than meeting full certification standards. Sixty-two persons were employed under permit status as of fall 1989 (WVDE, 1989).

Dublinski (1986) referred to "one of the unfortunate assumptions regarding SLPs employed in rural schools"; this is the idea that SLPs in rural schools do not need to be as well prepared as clinicians practicing in other areas. The rural practitioneer is required to serve students ranging in age from infants to young adults. The types of communication disorders for which the SLP is expected to provide services are complex. The position of the rural practitioneer is often compounded by the relative isolation with which he/she must contend. Chezik, et. al. (1989) point to the "non traditional barriers to service delivery experienced in rural schools. Some of these barriers include large distributions of small populations over vast land areas, poor or limited access to service due to lack of roads or poor road conditions with no public or private transportation, limited economic development, inadequate resources, restricted climate control, very low levels of public awareness and linguistic and cultural differences" (p.52). Having just read that "sales pitch" for rural schools one may not be surprised that recruitment and retention remains a problem for rural administrators.

WVU'S RURAL PROJECT

The Department of Speech Pathology and Audiology at West Virginia

University has received funding from the U.S. Department of Education and the West Virginia Department of Education to assist in the recruitment, training and retention of SLPs to work in rural school settings. The "Rural Project", as it has become known at West Virginia University, addresses three areas: (1) recruiting indigenous rural students who express a desire to work in a rural setting; (2) providng specialized academic and clinical experiences designed to prepare students to work in rural areas; and (3) researching and providing information to special education administrators to assist in recruitment and retention. Undergraduate and graduate students and clinicians employed on permit status are actively recruited for the rural project. The rural grant provides students a $7200 stipend over 1 year and full tuition waiver for a minimum of 3 semesters. The department has also been able to provide at least partial tuition waivers for the remaining two semesters of graduate study.

In addition to completing all the requirements for the master's degree in speech pathology, grant supported students are required to enroll in two specially designed seminars focusing on rural issues. The purpose of the two courses is to provide students with pertinent information to increase the likelihood of having a successful professional experience in the rural setting. Numerous investigators (Sontag and Button 1980, Horn 1981, Helge 1983, Marrs 1983, Burton and Chaves, 1984) have reported inadequate preservice training to prepare personnel to function in rural/remote areas. In addition to the specialized coursework, students also complete a one-semester practicum placement in a rural setting. Students are permitted to choose the site for their externship and are encouraged to select a county in which they might like to work following graduation. Students who accept rural grant awards are required to sign a letter of intent to work in a rural setting following graduation. Thus, from the onset of the program the students realize that they are obligated to seek rural employment.

RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION DATA

As part of the rural project, two survey instruments were developed to identify recruitment and retention strategies currently in place in West Virginia and to identify potential problems related to the recruitment and retention of SLPs. A thirteen-item instrument was mailed to all 55 Directors of Special Education (DES) in West Virginia. A second survey instrument, consisting of 36 items which targeted caseload data, professional responsibilities, selection criteria for locale and professional positions and recruitment and retention strategies was sent to 356 SLPs practicing in West Virginia public schools.

Survey Responses: Directors of Special Education

The recruitment and retention questionnaire developed to solicit information from directors of special education was sent to the directors in each of the county school systems in West Virginia. Of the fifty-five questionnaires mailed out fifty-three or a return rate of 96% was received. All responses were tabulated and analyzed.

Special Education Directors (SED) were querried regarding: the individual(s) responsible for recruitment of SLPs, strategies being utilized, and types of recruitment incentives offered. Specific questions were also asked regarding special education directors' perceptions of why SLPs either leave or remain in their respective counties.

Review of the SED's responses revealed greater variety in terms of who is responsible for interviewing SLPs and more similarily in terms of how recruitment is actually done. Most commonly the individuals involved included SED (69.8%), Director of Personnel (41.5%), Superintendent of Schools (28.3%), and School Principal (20.8%). SLPs functioning in some administrative capacity, were reported as part of the interview staff by 32% of the respondents. In all but one instance SLPs were interviewed by more than one person.

Inspection of responses related to recruitment strategies reveals similar responses among counties. It appears that most are using the standard techniques one expects to see in general school personnel recruitment. See Table 1.

Table 1. **Recruitment Techniques Reported by SEDs**
N=53

Recruitment Techniques	% of Counties Reporting
Recruiting from university training programs	93%
Advertising in newspapers	51%
Advertising in Asha Journal	25%
"Job" Newsletters/Employment Bulletins	21.%
Other	36%

Thirty-six percent (36%) of the SEDs reported some "other" type of recruitment techniques. These ranged from "word of mouth" (8%) to recruiting students placed in the county for practicum experience (2%). Analysis of the responses revealed that the majority of counties reported using only limited recruitment techniques. Only a small number (13.2%) of the respondents reported using four or more techniques to inform potential candidates about the positions. By far the most common response was to recruit from universities. Experience has shown that in many cases this simply means sending a position vacancy to the training program or career placement service with little or no follow-up. This can hardly be viewed as aggressive recruitment. Some good advice is presented by Horn (1985) who stated, "...rural schools must become aggressive. This aggressiveness must begin by seeking out the best qualified and best suited for employment in their districts. The search should extend to other schools, across state boundaries, and certainly beyond local communities." (pg. 18)

SEDs were also asked to list recruitment incentives they were utilizing to induce SLPs to come to their respective counties. A listing of 12 items and one open-ended "other" choice were provided for respondents to choose from. Perusal of Table 2 reveals that many of the "incentives" reported are items that might be viewed as part of a fairly standard benefits package. Few "creative" incentives have been reported. A review of the recommended strategies and incentives listed later in this paper reveals that many of the strategies that have been suggested in the literature are not being used in West Virginia.

Table 2. **Reported Recruitment Incentives**
N = 56

Incentive	% Reporting
Leave for Professional Meetings	89%
Insurance Benefits (Medical)	87%
Funds to Purchase Materials	83%
Maternity Leave	59%
Continuing Education Reimbursement	45%
Part-time Employment	38%
Monetary Supplement	19%
Reduced Caseload	15%
Reimbursement for Professional Journals	8%
Job Sharing	4%
Reimbursement for Professional Dues	0%
Funds for Research	0%

SEDs reported using few incentives that were not listed above. Two respondents reported providing contract work to SLPs either for evaluations or employment during summer months. Responses such as subscribing to journals for the speech therapy department, supplemental optical and dental insurance, availability of equipment and materials, providing continuing education opportunities locally, and a "good" school system were each reported by one SED.

Survey Responses: Speech-Language Pathologists

Of the 356 SLP questionnaires mailed out 241 (67%) were returned. Analysis of identifying information yielded the following profile of respondents. Of the 241 individuals responding, 54 percent were between the ages of 31-40 years and 68.5% held a master's degree. Of those with a master's degree 46.8% reported that they also held the Certificate of Clinical Competence from the ASHA. The majority of the respondents had six or more years of experience; 39.7% reported working 6-10 years and 21.7% reported 11-15 years of professional experience as an SLP. Responses were received from SLPs employed in 54 of the 55 counties in West Virginia. While U.S. Census data classifies all fifty-five counties as rural it is interesting to note that, 33% of the respondents stated that they did not consider their county to be rural.

SLPs were asked, "Why did you choose to work in West Virginia Public Schools?" Four specific choices were listed and one open ended "other" choice was provided. Table 3 displays the responses. A number of respondents listed more than one choice so the percentages totaled are greater than 100%

Table 3. SLPs Reasons for Working in WV Public Schools
N = 241

Reason	% Responding
Wanted to return to work in hometown/state	26.7
Spouse had a job in the area	34.3
First offer received	16.7
Recruitment made setting seem attractive	5.4
Other	23.8

Under Other a variety of responses were reported. The most common response was related to the "attractiveness of a public school setting including summer vacations and daily schedules." A number of respondents commented that the school schedule more easily accomodated "having a family." Perusal of these responses may provide some insight for recruiters. Although not always possible, it may prove an effective recruitment strategy to attempt to locate employment for the SLP's spouse. Thirty-four percent of the respondents referred to the fact that their spouse had employment in the area as a reason for taking a position. It has long been reported that recruitment of indigeneous rural residents is a good recruitment tactic and the current investigation seems to bear this out. Early recruitment may also be a positive factor since 16.7% of the respondents stated they accepted the position in West Virginia because it was the "first position offered." On the other hand, recruitment techniques that were utilized were not cited as a strong reason for individuals taking positions in the state. Only 5.4% of the respondents stated that the recruitment techniques made the setting seem attractive. Perhaps recruiters should stress some of the things unique to a public school position that have been cited as positive factors, (i.e. school calendar, summer vacations, hours compatible with children's schedules, etc) and should also concentrate on the selling points of the local community.

Providing information to prospective employees regarding available positions is one of the first steps in recruiting. A review of responses to the question "How did you learn about your present position" reveals that newspaper advertisements, brochures, job bulletins, information available at professional conventions, placement and employment centers combined accounted for only 12% of the responses. Conversely, less formal means such as "through a friend" and "information from a professor" accounted for 24.5% of the responses. In a small rural state informal networks are often quite effective in disseminating information and many prove an effective recruitment vehicle. Nearly thirty-nine percent of the respondents reported they were "personally contacted by the county" and almost twenty five percent indicated that they learned about available positions by initiating contact with a county and "seeking and applying" for a position. Such data indicate that at least in the state of West Virginia, county recruitment efforts are not as agressive or varied as they might be. Our school systems must develop and utilize a variety of means for getting the word out about their positions.

SLPs were asked about the criteria they use when selecting a position. Fourteen items were rated by the SLPs in terms of their relative importance in selecting a Locale for a professional position as an SLP. A five point scale was used, (1 = unimportant and 5 = important). The responses of the SLPs were tabulated and a mean score calculated for each item. Table 4 displays the scores derived for the fourteen items. The SLPs rated five of the 14 items 4.0 and above and only one item below 3.0. The mean score for all items was 3.74. Overall the items were rated within a fairly narrow band with individual scores ranging from 2.90 to 4.50. Quality of Local School System received the highest score (4.50) and Salary was the second highest rated item with a mean score of 4.46. When SLPs were questioned why they chose to work in West Virginia public schools 34.3% indicated that this was due to the fact their spouse had employment in the area. Spouse's Job Opportunity was also a highly rated item on this questionnaire receiving a score of 4.22. It is interesting to note the other item that also received a score of 4.22; Opportunity to Interact with Other SLPs. This is something that can be fostered simply by changing schedules and arranging for weekly or monthly staff meetings. As the third highest rated item it is clearly something that is perceived as important by SLPs and a low cost option available to administrators.

Table 4 - Locale Selection Variables
N = 241

	Item	$\bar{X}$ SLPs Rating
1.	Salary	4.46
2.	Close to Family	3.82
3.	Spouse's Job Opportunities	4.22
4.	Crime Rate	3.41
5.	Availability of Cultural Events	3.47
6.	Availability of Recreation Activities	3.59
7.	Climate	3.16
8.	Shopping Facilities	3.28
9.	Proximity to Urban Areas	3.41
10.	Housing	3.91
11.	Quality of Local School System	4.50
12.	Continuing Education Opportunities	4.04
13.	Opportunity to Interact with other SLPs	4.22
14.	Availability of day care facilities	2.90

The questionnaire also asked SLPs to rate a series of seventeen items in terms of their relative importance in Selecting a Professional Position as a speech language pathologist. A five-point scale (1 = unimportant - 5 = important) was again employed. Responses on this item revealed that the SLPs rated 11 of the seventeen items above 4.0 with a mean score of 4.01 for all items. The top three items rated by the SLPs were Medical Insurance Benefits (4.68); Salary (4.50); and Dental Insurance Benefits (4.47). Table 5 lists the SLP's ratings of the 17 job selection variables.

Table 5. Job Selection Variables
N=241

	Item	$\bar{X}$ SLPs Rating
1.	Salary	4.50
2.	Cooperation Among Professionals	4.40
3.	Part-time Job Opportunities	2.89
4.	Job-sharing	2.84
5.	Amount of Travel Required per Week	3.88
6.	Reimbursement for Continuing Education	4.13
7.	Vacation Benefits	3.87
8.	Medical Insurance Benefits	4.68
9.	Dental Insurance	4.47
10.	Optical Insurance	4.33
11.	Life Insurance	4.30
12.	Liability Insurance	4.28
13.	Maternity/Paternity Leave	3.63
14.	Caseload	4.37
15.	Availability of Therapy Materials	4.37
16.	Budget for New Materials	4.32
17.	Research Opportunities	2.97

Comparison of the SLP responses regarding locale and job selection criteria to the list of incentives reported by SEDs reveals some major differences in perceptions of the two groups.

To permit the reader to view these results in a more concise manner, Table 6 has been constructed to collapse both categories of selection variables (Locale & Job) into one list and to show the respective ratings for each item. Only the items whose mean rating was 4.0 or above have been listed in this table. In a second column the incentives reported by the SEDs are listed with the corresponding % of the SEDs who reported each incentive. Comparison of these two sets of responses indicate that a number of variables are perceived as important by the SLPs, however only a few of these are routinely utilized as recruitment incentives by SEDs.

Table 6. Comparison of SED Recruitment Incentives and SLPs Local and Job Selection Criteria

	Locale and Job Selection Variables with Rating of 4.00 and Above	$\bar{X}$ score	% SEDs Reporting Incentive Use
1.	Medical Insurance	4.68	87%
2.	Quality of School System	4.50	2%
3.	Salary	4.50	19%
4.	Dental Insurance	4.47	2%
5.	Cooperation Among Professionals	4.40	0%
6.	Caseload	4.37	15%
7.	Availability of Materials	4.37	2%
8.	Optical Insurance	4.33	2%
9.	Budget for New Materials	4.32	83%
10.	Life Insurance	4.30	0%
11.	Liability Insurance	4.28	0%
12.	Spouses Job Opportunities	4.22	0%
13.	Opportunity to Interact with SLP	4.22	0%
14.	Reimbursement for Continuing Education	4.13	45%
15.	Continuing Education Opportunities Available	4.04	0%

SLPs were asked to suggest techniques they felt would be helpful in recruiting candidates to their counties. While the array of recruitment techniques currently being used by counties could not be characterized as extensive or creative, the same cannot be said about the suggestions made by the SLPs. Table 7 lists the incentives reported by more than 10% of the respondents.

Table 7. Recruitment Techniques Suggested by SLPs
N = 144

Technique Suggested	% Respondents
Monetary Incentives	64.6
Release Time and Reimbursement for Professional Meetings	14.6
Recruit On-Campus (College/University)	13.2
Better Advertising of Position Vacancies	13.2
Provide Better Facilities	12.5
Provide Graduate Education Locally	11.1

To implement some of the suggestions presented in Table 7 would necessitate substantial expenditures (e.g. monetary incentives, facilities, and graduate education) and may not be realistic given the current economic climate in West Virginia. In addition to the techniques presented in Table 7, a number of "Other" techniques were suggested. Items that were suggested by less than 10% of the respondents have been listed below. Many of these items are quite creative and some would be quite costly while others would require only a shift in attitude or change in policy.

"Other"* Recruitment Techniques Suggested by SLPs:

--Provide Adequate Equipment/ Materials;
--Provide Continuing Education Locally;
--Supportive Local Administration;
--Recruit Elementary and High School Students into the Profession;
--Eliminate "Non-Speech Pathology" Duties (i.e. Substituting for absent teachers, lunchroom duty, etc.);
--Recruit Early (Pre May-August);
--Include SLPs As Part of Interview Staff;
--Advertise Part-time Positions;
--Provide Support/Clerical Staff;
--Recruit More Actively Outside the State;
--Provide Reimbursement for Graduate Tuition;
--Schedule in County Visits for Applicants;
--Provide Day Care Facilities;
--Provide Car for School Related Travel;
--Provide Relocation Reimbursement;
--Schedule Opportunity for Interaction with Other SLPs;
--Encourage Public School Practica for Students in Speech Pathology;
--Reduce Certification from Masters to Bachelors.

These suggestions may be viewed as a "wish list" by administrators, but should not be so easily dismissed. Items such as beginning recruitment earlier in the school year, advertising positions more effectively, visiting on college campuses for recruiting, encouraging public school practicum placements, and including SLPs as part of the interview team could be instituted with relatively little impact on county budgets. Local administrators may not have the power to change salary schedules or reallocate funds to provide monetary incentives, but there are some items that are within their power to change. As noted earlier, SLPs rated the opportunity to interact with one another as an important factor, structuring work assignments to foster this interaction is something that can be accomplished at the local level. Budgeting funds for materials acquisition and reimbursement for continuing education are often within the purview of the local administrators and as such can be utilized as recruitment strategies. SLPs also rated caseload considerations high on their scale of importance. Thus, maintaining and advertising "reasonable" caseloads or at least caseloads within state guidelines could be a positive recruiting strategy. Based on the results of the survey and on interactions with SLPs it is becoming increasingly clear that these potential employees have their own set of employment selection criteria and to successfully recruit them these must be addressed.

RETENTION

In many rural areas retention of special educators, including SLPs is as great a problem as initial recruitment. Helge (1983) reported that 44% of the rural special education administrators surveyed reported no successful retention strategies. The turnover rate of special educators has remained a problem in rural areas (Helge, 1981, Marrs, 1983, Ludlow, 1985). Within West Virginia it is not uncommon to recruit B.S. level clinicians on permit status only to have them leave within a year or two to complete their master's degree and subsequently work elsewhere.

It is interesting to look at the perceptions of the SLPs themselves with respect to retention strategies. Of the 241 SLPs surveyed, 224 responded with suggestions when asked how they felt their respective counties might more effectively retain SLPs. Table 8 lists the SLPs responses. With the exception of providing monetary incentives and supporting (financially) attendance at professional meetings, all of the other retention strategies reflect an attitude of increased administrative support rather than direct expenditures. In some instances providing a better work environment may simply mean providing an adequate room. In the past, providing adequate facilities may have been at the option of the SED and/or school principal: however the Regulations issued under Section 504 clearly state that equal facilities for special education is no longer a luxury. Work environment has been cited by ASHA (1990) as one of the items to discuss with students who are being recruited into the profession. In fact, ASHA's Student Recruitment Manual (1990) states "facilities in most school systems and established clinics are comfortable and adequately equipped." There are some rural school settings that certainly do not approach this standard. If the SLP is to feel as if she/he is a valued member of the school team it is important that the work facility reflect this.

Table 8. SLP Responses: Suggestions for Retention
N=224

Retention Strategies	% Responding
Provide monetary incentives	81.6%
Provide a better work environment	62%
Provide inservices within the county	54.4%
Confine duties to speech pathology services	49.1%
Encourage/support attendance at professional meetings	45.9%
Maintain caseloads within state guidelines	40.1%

SUGGESTIONS FOR RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION

A review of the literature from 1982-1990 with citings from 28 sources has yielded a variety of suggested strategies for recruiting and retaining special educators. The following section presents these suggested strategies and suggestions derived from the current survey. The strategies have been grouped somewhat arbitrarily into six subcategories. Many of the suggestions have cited in a number of sources and in the interest of brevity of this paper, strategies within the body are not credited to individual sources. However, all sources are listed in the reference section of the paper.

Financial Options

--State Department of Education providing scholarship loans "tuition reimbursements".
--Seek external funding to federal/state foundations
--Help to provide specific incentives (industry/business & individual)

--Mobilize the business community to provide loans, free rent or discounts.
--Provide school loans with forgiveness provisions for taking positions in rural areas.
--Interest free loans prior to first check.
--Provide financial supplements.
--Sign-on bonus one-time payment.
--One-time bonus at the end of first year.
--Subsidize moving expenses.
--Release time with pay for specified number of days during the year (with hiring substitute could be quite expensive).
--Contract for additional work beyond school year - or after the school day.
--Paid sabbatical leave after specified number of years.
--Provide and/or subsidize day care for children.
--Bonuses for outstanding performance.
--Salary incentives based on years of professional experience (public school and other settings).
--Pay professional organization dues.
--Some districts have worked with the U.S. Department of Agriculture to provide low cost housing.
--Pay expenses for interview.
--Provide student stipends/housing/travel allotment to recruit students for practicum placement and then try to hire them.

Education/Training Opportunities

--Provide support network - content related.
--Teacher Academics (emphasize professional/personal development).
--Contact neighboring counties and develop cooperatives for providing local inservices.
--Provide part-time degree programs and alternative certification structure to allow regular education teachers to compile degree requirements.
--Educate new staff about local cultures how to assess/access local communication and power systems.
--Work with colleges and universities to get local or evening courses to/or continuing education and to provide opportunity to complete graduate work.
--Provide relevant local inservices (e.g. some SLPs report attending only math or art workshops).
--Provide specialized pre-service/in-service coursework to prepare individuals to work in rural settings.
--Survey teachers in regular education and assist those who are interested in obtaining graduate training to qualify as an SLP.

Support Personal/Professional

--Utilize "local talent" to help alleviate burn out by providing support to develop specific skills.
--Select community based mentors to help familiarize newly recruited staff persons to local area.
--Develop mentor program with more experienced staff members within the system.
--Recognize professional excellence through public awards programs.
--Provide opportunities for career growth - training in administrative skills.
--Foster and demonstrate a supportive attitude of the local administrator (director of special education) who will be perceived as a program advocate.
--Provide avenues for utilization of various service delivery models. Many school systems are still relying heavily on the pullout model.

--Provide opportunities for meeting regularly with peers.
--Provide opportunities to visit other program in neighboring counties/districts/states.
--Encourage and provide opportunities to develop leadership skills.
--Assist personnel in seeking and obtaining grant monies to develop special pet projects or to pay for travel for professional meetings.
--Help to develop recreational/social activities for employees and family.
--Support professional exchange opportunities such as journal groups, clinical forums, etc.

Recruitment Techniques

--Visit colleges and universities to recruit.
--Attend professional meetings to recruit.
--Use skilled interviewers who have positive feeling about the area.
--Include SLPs as part of the interviewing team.
--Advertise widely for positions.
--Call prospective candidates on the phone and invite them for an interview.
--Recruitment at colleges that traditionally serve rural markets or have rural training projects.
--Hold job fairs.
--Identify and recruit local high school students who are interested in pursuing speech pathology.
--Arrange for students to meet with and assist SLP on the job.

Incentives

--Providing clerical support to reduce amount of time spend on paperwork.
--Develop a program for training and utilizing paraprofessionals as part of the total service delivery program.
--Providing adequate materials and yearly budget to update.
--Guaranteed support to attend professional meetings - state and national.
--Provide local access to professional journals/materials.
--Work with local business leaders to secure summer positions.
--Help to locate or provide employment for spouse of the candidate.
--Offer job sharing and part-time employment opportunities.

Marketing the Rural Area

--Develop videotape, brochures, packets to disseminate.
--Sell the local community by involving local businesses in the recruitment package.
--Provide home locating services.
--Work with local press to improve public opinion of "the schools.
--Highlight positive aspects of rural area - quality of life, safety-good setting for child rearing.
--Stress rural setting as an escape from many of the problems associated with an urban lifestyle.
--Develop attractive professional-looking promotional packages (The ditto machine is dead). Work with local economic development district or chamber of commerce to help defray costs.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Tommy W. Allen
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 2:45pm- 3:45pm

Dr. Tommy W. Allen
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Middle School Dropout Prevention
The STEP Model

Dropping out of school has long been viewed as a serious educational and social problem. By leaving school before graduation, most dropouts severely limit their educational, economic and social well-being. As society moves quickly into an interdependent world economy with a high technology base, there will be less and less demand for unskilled employees. For the United States to be economically competitive and socially cohesive in the 21st century, it is imperative that we educate and develop the talents of all young people.

Currently, one out of every for American students are at-risk of dropping out of school. Dropping out is not an isolated act, but rather a response to, and a consequence of, years of experiences in home, school and community that make dropping out an attractive option compared to the despair of staying in school. Some researchers predict the problem will become worse in the near future because of demographic changes, socioeconomic problems, and increased academic requirements.

Dropouts typically have experienced repeated school failures while drawing limited support for formal education from home or their community. Behind the alarming statistics lie the complex life stories of young people who have given up on one of the primary institutions of our society--their schools and often, their schools have given up on them.

Research and practice indicated that the dropout problem does not begin at the high school level, but rather it is a complex, interconnected set of circumstances that begins with young adolescents. Socioeconomic and school stresses seem to intensify at the middle grade level. It is the multiple messages of rejection that places many middle grade children at risk of dropping out of school. Empirical research and case studies of dropouts highlight the relationship between school practices and students' experiences in relation to their school.

Compared to students who remain in school, dropouts have accumulated a variety of school experiences which undermine their commitment to school. Academically, dropouts have lower grades and lower test scores. They are more likely to be enrolled in general or vocational curricula. Dropouts are also more likely to have been retained in a grade, which can result in their being over-age for their grade placement. They have more reported discipline problems, higher truancy, tardiness, and suspension rates in school, as well as more serious behavior problems outside of school. They are likely to be more dissatisfied with their success in school, feel less satisfied with themselves and their accomplishments in general, and question the relevance of school to their future more than students who are not at risk of dropping out of school. Additionally, dropouts often come from families with lower aspirations for their children.

The implication of existing dropout literature is that the process of dropping out is complex and involves the interaction of certain school responses with certain student characteristics resulting in the disengagement of students from their schools. Negative school experiences for at-risk students feed on each other, creating a school environment which presents enormous hurdles for students who are otherwise often without the support needed to cope. Lack of school success and alienation become interconnected symptoms which characterize the experience of the at-risk students.

STEP is an intensive summer program that combines remedial reading and math instruction, education on responsible sexual attitudes and behavior, and work experience. For two consecutive summers students receive the minimum wage over a six-to-eight week period and divide their time between the classroom and the work place.

The first group of students to come through STEP in 1985 cut by half the summer learning losses experienced by a control group that did not combine study with their summer work program. In the second year, the instructional component of the program was strengthened. With a more prescriptive curriculum and experienced teachers providing classroom supervision, the program proved even more successful. Pre and post test scores on the Metropolitan Achievement Test showed the control group registering summer losses of almost a full grade equivalent in reading and half a grade equivalent in math. In contrast, the STEP students eliminated two-thirds of the reading loss and actually made a small gain in math.

During two consecutive summers, STEP participants receive 90 hours of remedial instruction in reading and math (Practical Academics), attend Life Skills, & Opportunities (LSO) for 18 hours, and work for at least 100 hours on the Summer Youth Employment and Training Program (SYETP) jobs. They are paid minimum wage for a full day, five days a week for six to eight weeks. During the school year, STEP youth are individually counseled and tutored, and are involved in STEP group activities. A second summer of work and study is guaranteed to successful first-summer completers who stay in school.

PRACTICAL ACADEMICS

The Practical Academics curriculum is designed to improve the reading and math proficiencies of participants in the Summer Training and Education Program (STEP). The P/PV-designed curriculum prototype enables STEP sites to: 1) tailor instruction to participants' widely varying backgrounds and skill levels; and 2) teach reading and math in the context of issues and topics that are relevant to participants' experiences and interests.

The Practical Academics curriculum prototype has the following key features:

- A comprehensive approach that combines theme-based learning activities with instruction in reading and math. Special attention is given to the thinking processes necessary for responsible functioning in school, on the job and in society. The curriculum specifies instructional outcomes and offers a program that can be matched to the performance levels of individual students (from fourth- to 10th-grade);
- Ninety hours of instruction;
- A 1:15 ratio of instructional staff to students; and
- Daily morning instructional sessions (not exceeding three and one-half hours per day).

Instruction in Practical Academics centers on P/PV-developed learning modules. Each module focuses on several topics related to a specific theme of interest and importance to students. Half of each day's instruction time is dedicated to group instruction on module topics.

In the remaining time, students take part in both group-paced and individually paced activities designed to provide meaningful practice in reading or math. These include computer-assisted instruction (CAI), which should occupy 20 percent of class time; sustained silent reading; and journal-writing.

Since integration of program components is an important goal of STEP, Practical Academics is also designed to complement participants' work experience and the P/PV-developed Life Skills and Opportunities (LSO) curriculum.

The sample weekly schedule in this packet suggests one approach to presenting daily instruction: module instruction or LSO instruction for the first half of the morning, followed by additional activities in the second half. Work experience is confined to the afternoon.

The Learning Modules

The learning modules that form the nucleus of the curriculum connect reading and math instruction with an issue or theme that is of importance and interest to students; each is designed to occupy one or two weeks of instruction. Modules combine teacher-guided instruction (demonstrations and modeling), student-paced practice, and opportunities for supplementary projects, both for individuals and the group. Suggested independent reading and writing assignments are also included. The idea is to build participants' academic skills, life skills and job-readiness skills.

Each theme-based module developed by P/PV consists of self-contained teaching guides that include a lesson script for every topic; applied activity sheets for student use (with answer keys for teachers); copies of required handouts; and suggestions for follow-up projects. The modules reflect a deliberate effort to address higher-order reading and thinking skills, including questioning, predicting, interpreting, making inferences and problem-solving. Activities have the explicit goal of promoting language skills, especially writing.

Initial instruction in each module is suitable for presentation to a class whose members read at an intermediate level, between sixth- and eighth-grade. However, some activities have been developed for students who read at levels as low as fourth-grade or as high as 10th-grade. In addition, some activities are differentiated by the complexity of skills students use and practice.

A teacher who has been through initial staff training can use the learning modules without significant additional development. However, the design allows--in fact, encourages--local staff to refine and strengthen the prototype for application within the framework of their program.

Individual Instruction

Half of instruction time is devoted to individually paced instruction, for which P/PV provides guidelines and detailed planning information; recommended teaching strategies; lists of relevant print materials; software titles and guidelines for CAI; suggested independent projects and journal-writing activities; and suggested selections for sustained silent reading, keyed to the module topics.

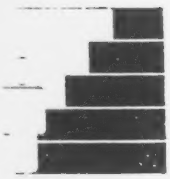
Individual support activities give students an opportunity to practice the reading and math skills modeled in learning modules, and give teachers a chance to tailor instruction to students based on their specific needs. During this part of the schedule, students can work in any areas that need attention, either within or outside the context of the learning module.

The curriculum requires that CAI be an important instructional component--it is recommended that 20 percent of all instructional time be devoted to CAI. Two other required activities--sustained silent reading and journal writing--should represent about 30 to 40 minutes per day. They are designed to help students establish the habits of reading and writing.

Site Responsibilities

P/PV supplies sites with a copy of the Practical Academics curriculum and all student materials, and also conducts training sessions for instructors. Sites must hire a lead teacher, assemble a curriculum planning group, select modules that will be used from available offerings, order complementary instructional materials, hire classroom and CAI instructors, arrange space and computers, send staff to the national training conference and to in-state sessions offered by P/PV, and provide additional on-site training.

LIFE SKILLS AND OPPORTUNITIES



Life Skills and Opportunities (LSO) is an educational program that integrates teens' preparation for future employment with planning for their future families. It focuses on two of the most important responsibilities facing teenagers: (1) preparing for the world of work, and (2) dealing with their sexual and reproductive development, feelings and behaviors. These two important areas of adolescent development are addressed simultaneously because they are closely linked in the lives of young people.

The Problem

We know a great deal about teen sexual behavior and how an unintended teenage pregnancy can affect the future education, employment and economic well-being of young men and women. The following facts provide some perspective on the problem:

- Among young women, pregnancy is the most frequently cited reason for dropping out of school. Only 50 percent of teenage women who give birth before age 18 complete high school, compared with 96 percent of those who have children after age 20.

- Only 70 percent of teenage men who become fathers complete high school, compared with 95 percent of those who did not become parents as teens.

- Teenage mothers earn about half the income of mothers who first give birth in their 20s: women who have their first baby as teenagers work in lower-status occupations, accumulate less work experience, receive lower hourly wages and earn less annually.

- Seventy-one percent of AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children) recipients under age 30 had their first child in their teens.

LSO is intended to help teens become more aware of these health, social and, especially, economic implications of early childbearing, so they will be motivated to delay parenthood until after they achieve their educational and vocational goals. At the same time, it is designed to help teens formulate goals and expectations for their futures. Research indicates that goal-oriented teens are more likely than other teens to avoid an early pregnancy, either by delaying sexual involvement or by using contraception effectively and consistently.

The LSO Program

Teens who participate in LSO learn that educational and vocational plans are related to their plans for a family. They also learn more about their sexuality, including societal sex roles and stereotypes; values; how to say "no"; the importance of using contraception if they are sexually active; their relationships with others; and the responsibilities of being a parent. Participating teens practice several skills basic to the program: goal-setting, decision-making, assertiveness and communication. Perhaps most important, teens learn more about themselves--their own strengths, weaknesses, attitudes and values. Such self-awareness, combined with important skill development, may provide the foundation young people need to begin to work toward the realization of their dreams.

The STEP program offers youth a standardized, structured LSO curriculum developed by P/PV and its consultants. The program, which has been received enthusiastically by youth in more than 70 STEP sites, offers twelve 90-minute segments of lectures, discussions, field trips, role-plays, films and guest speakers.

To fit a two-summer sequence of programming, the LSO curriculum is designed in two volumes. Each volume responds to the developmental and informational needs of its specific audience: first-year participants for Volume I and second-summer participants for Volume II. However, the volumes share a common goal, with the second volume expanding on the concepts and skills established in the first.

Volume I includes sessions that focus on personal values, decision-making, sex-role stereotyping, the physiology of sex and contraception, sexual relationships and responsibility. This first-year curriculum also prescribes a visit to a comprehensive health facility that serves adolescents.

Volume II reinforces the themes of Volume I, but gives a greater emphasis to work attitudes and behavior, career exploration, effective communication, and health maintenance.

STEP Research Findings

P/PV's research indicates that LSO has a strong, positive impact on participants's sexual knowledge. At the program's end, participants are more knowledgeable about reproduction, the use and availability of contraception, and consequences of adolescent parenthood. In the case of those who are sexually active, some are more likely to use birth control. In addition, females who are not sexually active at program start, delay the onset of sexual activity longer than those not in the program.

Site Responsibilities

Site staff responsibilities include obtaining parental consent for LSO participation, hiring appropriate staff to deliver the curriculum, making logistical arrangements, attending the training provided by P/PV, conducting the classes and monitoring the component. P/PV provides sites with the fully developed LSO curriculum, including copies of the classroom lesson plans, activity sheets and handouts for students. P/PV also trains teachers to deliver the LSO curriculum.

SCHOOL YEAR SUPPORT

The goal of the School Year Support (SYS) component of STEP is to keep youth in school by reinforcing the lessons of the summer and helping youth perform better academically and socially. Under the SYS guidelines, each participant is assigned to an advocate who telephones and meets with him or her at least twice a month. These contacts often involve the participants' parents. Through this system of frequent contact, the advocates identify participants' personal, academic and/or attendance problems and either provide help or connect youth with appropriate support services. This individual contact is supplemented by several group events over the course of the school year.

Implementation

A single organization should be designated to assume overall responsibility for implementation of the SYS component. This organization may be the lead agency, such as the Private Industry Council, or the school district. The designated SYS lead agency hires a coordinator to design SYS activities and supervise the advocates, who may be members of the STEP summer staff, university students, or youth workers from the community.

STEP advocates are often drawn from staff who work with STEP students during the summer program. Some cities have used counselors, LSO instructors, Practical Academics teachers or aides; other cities have recruited interested community members or graduate students in local education, social work or psychology programs.

An advocate's primary role is to maintain regular contact with 10 to 15 youth. In most sites, advocates work about 10 to 15 hours a week, contacting the youth directly and making necessary referrals to special services, such as tutoring or counseling. They also follow up on their referrals and on youth's school progress. In addition, advocates contact parents and work with them to resolve a youth's problems. (Parents are also informed of SYS activities through newsletters and invitations to meetings.) Advocates must document all contacts with the youth for whom they are responsible and must meet regularly with the coordinator to discuss these contacts and any questions or problems that arise.

In addition to holding group activities and social events that bring the youth together to reinforce their affiliation with STEP during the school year, sites should plan some type of regular activity to supplement individual contact between advocates and youth. Activities can include mentoring programs, community service, newsletters, field trips, and LSO programs. Frequently, sites offer several activities during the school year; however, doing so may affect the staffing needs.

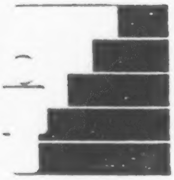
Incentives and Rewards

SYS programs can use incentives to motivate youth to attend school regularly and improve their grades. Youth can earn "points" by improving their grades and attendance, and thereby qualify for such prizes as gift certificates for fast food restaurants, calculators and athletic equipment. The prizes are often donated by businesses in the community.

Site Responsibilities

P/PV helps sites design the SYS component and provides information on how other sites implement their School Year Support programs. Sites are responsible for designing a program, arranging cooperation among relevant agencies, hiring a coordinator and advocates, training staff, and providing facilities and other support for the component.

FINDINGS: STEP REPLICATION (1990)



The full STEP model was implemented in 11 sites in 1988, 34 additional sites in 1989, and 23 new sites in 1990. To date, STEP sites have been located in 14 states: California, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nevada, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Texas and Washington.

More than 1,331 youth enrolled in the sites beginning operation in 1990, with males outnumbering females (55% vs 45%). About 62 percent of participants were 14 years old on starting the program; the remainder were 15. Youth were drawn from grades seven (20%), eight (62%), nine (16%), and 10 (2%). As in prior years, 1990 replication sites primarily served minorities: 45 percent were black; 28 percent were white; 18 percent were Hispanic; and 9 percent were from other racial/ethnic groups. Thirty-nine percent of the youth said their family received AFDC or other welfare payments.

Over half the enrollees reported having failed and repeated one or more grades in school. On average, they read at about the 5th-grade level--typically three years behind their actual grade level.

IMPROVED READING AND MATH SKILLS

Test results show that students in the STEP sites that began operations in 1990 significantly boosted academic competence during their first summer in STEP. Participants from all seven states with new sites actually raised their levels in reading. Six of the seven states showed gains in math; in the seventh, students "held their own," avoiding summer the learning losses typically experienced by youth in summer.

STUDENTS GAINED LIFE SKILLS KNOWLEDGE

By improving youth's basic academic skills, STEP takes on one of the major factors related to high dropout rates. The life skills component addresses other factors--including adolescent parenthood. The goal of the life skills component is to give youth greater confidence in their ability to make responsible decisions. The classes high-light the consequences of--and suggest constructive alternatives to--sexual activity, teen pregnancy and substance abuse.

While approximately 74 percent of 1989 STEP enrollees reported having had sex before entering the program, many were unable to answer basic questions about life skills issues and birth control. In fact, 23 percent reported having had unprotected sex in the two months prior to enrollment. By the end of the first summer, however, these youth increased their scores on scales that measure levels of contraceptive knowledge and increased their understanding of the consequences of adolescent pregnancy. They continued to gain life skills knowledge during their second summer in STEP.

STEP demonstration research, which will continue through 1993, has been designed to include the long-term follow-up needed to determine whether STEP participation reduces the incidence of teen pregnancy.

FEASIBILITY AND COST

During the past three summers, 68 sites have been successful in adopting the STEP model, which had been developed over the course of a four-year, five-site demonstration effort. Employment and training agencies, school systems and community organizations have collaborated successfully in all sites that have operated STEP to date. Operational arrangements are flexible: STEP has worked well in one or several school districts and has been implemented in cities, towns, urban counties, and rural areas. Classes and work experience have taken place at public schools as well as college campuses.

Compared with most other intensive youth programs, STEP's costs are modest. Most are covered by JTPA and education funds, with wages and basic SYETP administration funded by JTPA. Additional costs for STEP's reading and math instruction and life skills education range from $500 to $600 per summer; school-year support costs are about $350 per enrollee.

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Marguerite M. Mason
Co-Presenter: Walter Bruce Mason
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

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Project S.C.A.M.P. (Science, Computer, and Mathematics Professions): A Young Scholars Program for Academically Talented Rural Youth

The Problem

Academically talented rural students, especially those who do not have easy access to gifted programs and/or computer and laboratory facilities within their school districts, are often underserved. They frequently feel isolated and unchallenged. They don't even consider the possibility of a scientific career and fail to take the high school courses essential for competing successfully in college science and mathematics courses.

There are many problems associated with serving highly academically talented students adequately in a rural setting. There is often a lack of physical resources such as laboratories, computers, libraries, and just plain places to explore. As one seventh grade students complained, "We get to do one science lab each semester if we're lucky. Our school just doesn't seem to have the stuff it needs."

The professional staff are usually qualified generalists, but they may not have the great depth of understanding required to meet the expectations of these students. A seventh grade girl said, "Most of my teachers are afraid of me. They think I'm, smarter than they are. So they just let me do whatever I want to."

Only one student in one hundred scores in the 99th percentile on standardized tests. In many small districts, this fact translates to only one, or sometimes two students, functioning at this level in an entire grade. The students we encountered in our project are not textbook "Geeks", but instead they are well rounded students involved in extracurricular activities. However, they often feel uncomfortable or embarrassed by their giftedness. They lack role models. Many such students, even those students involved in sports and band, feel isolated and unchallenged. As one 9th grader, who is currently enrolled in Algebra II, put it, "Most of the time I'm bored out of my skull." As another ninth grader, who is enrolled in Geometry and is tutoring seniors in her class, said, "Tutoring is neat. I get to know other kids that way. But I don't really belong with them and I don't really belong with my class either. I guess I don't belong anywhere but here" [S.C.A.M.P.]. An eighth grade boy said, "Being smart is tough. Everybody always expects you to be perfect. Any time you're not, you're laughed at. Sometimes you're laughed at even when you do get things right." Another 9th grade boy, who is in sports and orchestra and seems quite popular, said, "I have to lead two lives. I have to watch every word I say and every thing I do to be sure it's considered cool. I can't ever talk about things I want to or do something just for the challenge of doing it. I can't let people know how smart I am. Otherwise, my friends won't accept me any more."

Many students exist in communities where educational and vocational horizons are very limited. Students we encountered from the coal mining regions and fishing villages alike do not see scientists at work. Many of these bright students don't even consider the possibility of a scientific career. As one 8th grade girl put it, "At my school, they expect you to slide through, graduate, get married, and have babies. That's all."

Most of the parents we encountered feel a need to do more for their children than they feel trained or able to provide. They are willing to go the extra mile, but don't know which way to go. As an example of this commitment, even though applications were not distributed until late May because of the red tape involved in the transfer of the program from Illinois to Virginia, we received over 400 applications in three weeks.

With these problems observed in earlier work with such students, Project S.C.A.M.P. was developed.

Program Overview

Project S.C.A.M.P. (Science, Computer, and Mathematics Professions) is a program funded by the National Science Foundation (Grant No. RCD-9096228) to nurture the mathematical and scientific talents and interests of rural gifted students entering the 7th, 8th, or 9th grade. The specific goals of this program are:

1. to expose participants to the excitement and challenge of a career in mathematics and/or science
2. to provide interaction with role models in these areas, including women and minorities
3. to provide counseling regarding career opportunities in the field, the academic preparation necessary for such careers and funding possibilities, and
4. strengthen peer, family and school support for such interests.

The year-long program consists of a three week residential camp on the grounds of the University of Virginia during which the students take computer-based classes in geometry and mathematical modeling using HyperCard and spreadsheets. Each afternoon, a Ph.D. from a different scientific discipline demonstrates an area in their particular field of expertise (e.g. a physicist demonstrating a nuclear reactor, an astronomer showing his observatory, and an engineer demonstrating computer aided design) and discusses what their particular career is like, opportunities in their area, and the academic preparation necessary for such a career. As a year long project, each student creates a computer simulation for a scientific topic of their choice with the help of a university mentor, and input from their teachers and classmates. Students also meet on three Saturdays during the school year. A mathematical modeling contest is conducted as a culminating activity during the following summer. Between these formal meetings, students communicate with one another, the camp staff, and their mentors through the use of a computer network. In addition, they each demonstrate their project to classes in their local schools, using a Macintosh SE-30 with Soft PC so that it can run MS-DOS programs as well as Macintosh programs. Sample lesson plans on mathematical modeling are also provided to their teachers for use with the entire class.

Mathematical Modeling

In order to generate or sustain the interest of adolescents in careers in mathematics or physics or other sciences, the student must become excited about that discipline. This objective can be accomplished, in part, by having the student actually experience the challenges of the discipline, interact with people who are excited about their profession, and discover that many possible barriers to their own involvement can be eliminated. This project, using the theme of mathematical modeling as an introduction to experiences in other disciplines, is designed to do precisely that.

The development and use of mathematical models is integral to scientific research. Recent technological developments have provided new tools for mathematical modeling including graphing calculators and microcomputers. The focus of this camp is to familiarize students with mathematical modeling and its role in many diverse areas of scientific endeavor. By exposing students to a variety of scientists and mathematicians using mathematical modeling in their work, the camp will stimulate interest in science disciplines as possible and realistic career choices and make the students aware of the academic preparation necessary for such careers.

The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics' recently released *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics* notes that

> The curriculum must give students opportunities to solve problems that require them to work cooperatively, to use

> technology, to address relevant and interesting mathematical ideas, and to experience the power and usefulness of mathematics (NCTM, 1989, 75)

NCTM further recommends "actively involving students individually and in groups in exploring, conjecturing, analyzing, and applying mathematics in both a mathematical and a real-world context" (p. 72). It also calls for increased attention to real-world applications and modeling (p. 126). Of course, mathematical models are merely mathematical descriptions of real situations usually involving some simplification and assumptions.

The 1990-91 Program

Because we assume that most of the camp participants will not have some of the knowledge and skills needed to create models, in the first phase of the project we provide classes four mornings a week in order to provide the knowledge and develop the skills necessary. Three series of classes are conducted. One focuses on mathematical modeling and its tools such as spreadsheets and function graphers. Another class introduces computer programs which can be used to create simulations such as HyperCard. The third is a manipulative and activity based approach to geometry employing Logo and the Valiant Turtle (a robot under the remote control of the computer), and the Geometric Supposer series. The objectives of including this segment are to explore the role of assumptions in mathematics and the difference between conjecture and proof as well as to provide remediation for an area of perceived deficiency.

The students each take all three classes, divided into three sections of ten or eleven students each. Each section has an instructor and an assistant. There is one computer for each student. In fact, as each student checks into camp, s/he is issued a IBM portable computer, which is hers/his for the duration of the three week experience. The LOGO and spreadsheet work is done on these computers. The remainder of the work such as the HyperCard simulations is completed on Macintosh computers.

Most afternoons, students interact with specialists from specific disciplines. These researchers, many of whom later serve as mentors, talk about or demonstrate an area in their particular field of expertise with specific time allotted for questions. They explain what their particular career is like, opportunities in their area, and the academic preparation necessary for such a career. The 1990 schedule was as follows:

Monday, July 30
Dr. Larry Richards, Director, Manufacturing Systems Engineering Program; Associate Director, Center for Computer Aided Engineering
"What's the Difference Between a Scientist, an Engineer, and a Mathematician?"
Also a hands-on tour of the Center for Computer Aided Engineering

Tuesday, July 31
Dr. Charles Tolbert, Associate Professor, Astronomy Department
"A Night in the Life of an Astronomer"
Also a tour of McCormick Observatory, followed by star-gazing at the Observatory on Friday evening

Wednesday, August 1
Dr. Paul Reynolds, Jr., Associate Professor, Computer Science Department
"Parallel Discrete Event Simulation, Using Queuing Networks as an Example Application"

Tuesday, August 7
Dr. Robert Mulder, Assistant Professor, Department of Nuclear Engineering; Director, Reactor Facility
"Nuclear Energy - The Theory and the Reality"
A tour of the University of Virginia Nuclear Reactor

Wednesday, August 8
Dr. Louis Bloomfield, Assistant Professor, Physics Department
"Lasers: How Do They Work?"
A demonstration and tour of the Laser Laboratory

Thursday, August 9
Dr. Otto Friesen, Professor, Chairman, Biology Department
"A Computer Model of Animal Locomotion: Leeches"

Monday, August 13
Dr. Joe Garafalo, Assistant Professor, Department of Curriculum, Instruction, and Special Education
"How to Solve a Problem"

Tuesday, August 14
Dr. Donald Ramirez, Associate Professor, Department of Mathematical Sciences
"A Problem in Probability"

Wednesday, August 15
Dr. Karen Parshall, Assistant Professor, Mathematics Department and History Department
"A Historical Perspective of Solving Higher Order Equations"

Friday, August 17
Dr. John Jackson, Medical Educator, UVa Medical Education Center
"Interactive Videodisc Simulations in Medical Training"
A Hands-On Demonstration

Fieldtrip Schedule

On Thursday, August 2, participants toured the Information Age Exhibit at the Smithsonian Institution. They used a study guide prepared by one of our staff. A discussion on ethics followed. Campers also visited the National Air and Space Museum and viewed the movie "To Fly!" On Monday, August 6, participants visited the National Aeronautics and Space Administration Research Center at Langley. They toured the public galleries, listened to a talk about the facility and N.A.S.A.'s mission and a talk on job opportunities with N.A.S.A.. The N.A.S.A. personnel made special arrangements for our students to experience the flight simulator, and to see a computer graphics demonstration. The Structural Engineering Division showed the students the simultaneous equations for the mathematical model for stress on a section of an airplane wing, the computer graphics representation of the same thing, and the physical model upon which they were both based. A discussion on modeling followed. On Thursday, August 16, participants toured the IBM Research Center at Manassas Park where they saw computer chips being manufactured and heard presentations by a college intern, a female programmer, and a minority engineer on what their training and careers. On the way back to Grounds, participants visited the Shenandoah National Park for a program on "Birds of Prey" and a picnic to which parents were invited. In this way, our students were able to interact with scientists in their work places, both in the public and private sector, in a setting other than a university campus.

The Simulations

By the middle of the second week, participants began choosing the particular topic for a computer simulation of using HyperCard and a particular faculty mentor to serve as a guide, facilitator, and subject matter expert. Students are encouraged to work in pairs or even trios on a single simulation. Daily work time is available for meetings with mentors, team meetings, work with instructors and lab aides who serve as resources on technology and modeling. Work on these simulations will continue throughout the year, and be presented during the follow-up week in June.

Some of the topics chosen by this year's participants include: Endangered Species, Wing Loading of Jet Aircraft, The Space Shuttle, Comets, Planets, Dissection of a Frog, Electric Cars, Design Your Own Sports Car, Dreams, Left Brain Vs. Right Brain, and Future Shock.

Follow-up Activities

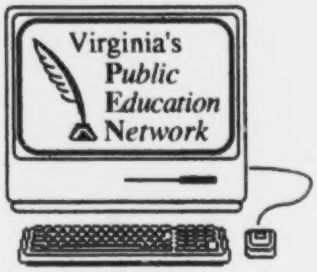
In order to sustain the interest generated by the three week summer session, several activities are continuing throughout the year.

Project Demonstrations in Their Home Schools

As part of the follow-up activities, during the following academic year, two Macintosh SE/30 Hard Drive 40 microcomputers are being loaned, on a rotating basis, to the campers. The campers can then share some of the knowledge and skills acquired during the previous summer with their teachers and peers. As part of the application process, the principal of the student's home school signed that they were willing to allow the student to demonstrate their projects and give an overview of mathematical modeling in a science or math class. In this way, we hope to obtain positive recognition for the student and expose both his teachers and classmates to some new ideas.

Virginia PEN

The Virginia Department of Education is establishing a Public Education Network (Spagnolo, 1990). This system will connect approximately 2,000 Virginia schools in 137 school districts to the existing national inter-university computer network, or *Internet*. The Internet in turn links tens of thousands of academic sites and industrial locations around the world. When it is completed, a single seamless telecomputing network will link all Virginia schools from kindergarten through graduate school (Bull, Hill, Guyre, and Sigmon, in press). To emphasize its use as an instrument of communication, the network has been given the acronym of *Virginia's PEN*.



The network has conferencing capabilities that potentially have great instructional value. Virginia's PEN has a conferencing system which supports use of *news groups*. There are three types of news groups: national, state, and local. There are more than 800 national discussion groups. There are thousands of sites which participate in the national news groups, including most major universities, government agencies such as NASA, and commercial firms. National news groups are organized by categories, such as science, societies, computers, and recreation. Each category has subcategories. For example, some of the listings under science include biology, chemistry, physics, mathematics, and space.

A special category of news groups has been established for Project S.C.A.M.P. on Virginia's PEN. Students may interact with one another, the S.C.A.M.P. staff, their mentors, and other resources such as NASA engineers. This link provides students with access to many human resources, both academic and emotional, that they wouldn't normally have.

The Saturday Programs

During the following academic year, three Saturday meetings are planned. The first of these was held on Saturday, November 10. Participants shared their experiences in their home districts and also brought their solutions to a modeling problem that was sent to them approximately one week prior to the meeting. They also continued work on their simulations. On February 9, participants gathered on the UVa Grounds for a similar meeting. In addition, at this meeting six UVa first year engineering students met with small groups of campers to discuss a design project. The engineering students are designing a educational toy for 12-14 year old students to try to interest them in science or engineering. The campers brainstormed with the engineering students. The engineering students, in turn, answered questions about college, the application and admission process, and preparation for college. Thye campers and their families completed their day by attending dinner and a UVa Women's basketball game. This social activity also allowed parents the chance to compare notes. Students will meet at Virginia Power's North Anna Plant on Saturday, April 27 to tour their nuclear, solar, and hydroelectric power plants. These three days are planned to help maintain interest over the course of the school year, and judging by the high attendance rates, have been successful in doing so.

Summer, 1991

On June 16, 1991, students will arrive on campus to begin a week of activities which should provide a suitable culmination to the year's study. They will finish their simulations and present them at the end of the week. The students will also meet with UVa staff from Career, Planning and Placement to explore how to choose a career and prepare for college. In addition, on Monday and Tuesday, modeling techniques will be reviewed and practiced. Participants will be divided into three or four person teams for a modeling contest. Ground rules will be explained and the problem posed Wednesday morning. Complete solutions will be due by 5:00 pm Thursday. Staff will act as resources, but will not participate in the actual problem solving. Dr. Charles Straley, a Presidential Awardee, will create the modeling problem and serve as the judge. Students will demonstrate their solutions on Friday, a general debriefing will be held, and plans for the future will be discussed. After dinner, the camp will end with an open house for parents and an awards ceremony.

Assessment

Project assessment is on-going. Academically, participants were pre-tested and post-tested to determine their van Hiele level of geometric understanding. All students showed progress, with several moving one or two van Hiele levels. All but one of the participants indicated that they would participate again if given the chance. Written evaluations from participants indicate the strengths of the camp include: the advanced subject matter, the opportunity to interact with real scientists and mathematicians, the quality of the teaching staff, the facilities, the fieldtrips, and the opportunity to meet and work with other gifted students. According to the students, the weaknesses of the camp were the food (a complaint typical of any camp which wasn't really justified in this case) and the strictness of the staff. (Students were not allowed out of the dormitories unescorted. They looked on this as being overly strict. We viewed it as prudent.) Feedback from parents support our level of supervision. The support from parents has been strong. Many have met with their children's teachers and have expressed their pleasure and that of the teachers at the amount that their children learned at the camp. They are pleased at the role models and support group for their children that the camp staff and participants provide for their children. They appreciate the career counseling. Dr. Mason has been invited to visit most of the schools and many of the homes of students during the school year.

Conclusions

Academically talented students attending rural schools have many problems to face such as isolation, unchallenging curriculum, and a lack of resources. The model of delivering supplemental services as implemented in Project S.C.A.M.P. appears to provide some solutions to these problems.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Oakley D. Hadfield
Co-Presenter: Fred Lillibridge
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

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A HANDS-ON APPROACH TO THE IMPROVEMENT OF RURAL ELEMENTARY TEACHER CONFIDENCE IN SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS[1]

Science and mathematics education continue to be two of the major concerns in U.S. education today. Levels of both achievement and participation in these disciplines are not acceptable (National Science Board Commission on Pre-college Education in Mathematics, Science, and Technology, 1985, p. 15; Educational Testing Service, 1988; National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1989, p. 1). Addressing these concerns has certain ramifications that are unique to rural small schools. One problem that is related to the rural small school environment hinges on the understanding that mathematics and science are cumulative, like foreign languages. Students need as many years as possible to interact with mathematical and scientific concepts in the real world (Arons, 1977; National Center for Improving Science Education, 1989, p. 3). This means that all elementary schools, including those in more isolated areas, must begin instruction in mathematics and science in the child's early school years.

Most science and mathematics educators agree that a hands-on, inquiry based approach in elementary school is the most effective means of instruction (Shymansky, Kyle, & Alport, 1983; Copeland, 1984; Suydam, 1984; Gauld, 1988). Experimental investigation is what science is all about. The use of manipulatives in elementary mathematics instruction is advocated to minimize anxiety and to improve conceptual understanding (Taylor & Brooks, 1986; Kennedy & Tipps, 1988, pp. 18-21). A hands-on approach to these disciplines is also advocated by cognitive theorists such as Piaget, Bruner, and Dienes (Heddens & Speer, 1988, pp. 3-7).

The rural small school situation presents problems for hands-on instruction in that it is materials intensive. This means that the school must have the economic resources to purchase proper equipment. This is often not the case in the rural small school (Howley, 1988). Hands-on materials also require up-to-date scientific knowledge. Rural teachers often complain these are not available due to their professional isolation (Jinks & Lord, 1990). As a result, many teachers develop a negative attitude and do not spend enough time teaching science (National Science Foundation, 1980; Weiss, 1987).

Improvement of math instruction among elementary teachers also involves attitude improvement. Unfortunately, mathematics anxiety is prevalent among elementary teachers (Buhlman & Young, 1982). Limited participation in mathematics courses at the secondary level can be blamed at least in part on lack of confidence due to mathematics anxiety that has its roots in the elementary school experience (Fennema & Sherman, 1976; Frary & Ling, 1983; Reyes, 1984). Minorities are particularly susceptible to both mathematics anxiety and reduced participation in mathematics and science (Amodeo & Emslie, 1985; Burton, 1984; Valverde, 1984).

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Although rural schools have financial constraints (Howley, 1988), their lower pupil-teacher ratio and their autonomy are often powerful advantages after teachers once become involved and committed to a new program. While urban teachers are often forced to try new programs that come and go, the momentum for improvement in rural small schools is frequently initiated and perpetuated by teachers rather than curriculum coordinators or principals (Killian, 1988). These factors can make summer inservice workshops particularly advantageous to rural teachers, and increase the likelihood of the sharing of new ideas with their peers. Research does support the assumption that outstanding teachers evolve over a period of time to become more "complete" teachers, with workshops and inservices being one instrumental part of their professional growth (Kierstead, 1985).

An appropriate workshop for elementary teachers is one that gives training in both the construction of hands-on equipment with inexpensive, local, everyday materials, and the proper applications of these materials to effective instruction. Workshops have proven to be effective in not only the improvement of lab equipment usage, but also the improvement of teacher attitudes and confidence toward teaching with such materials (Bitner-Corvin, 1986; Fraser-Abder, 1984). Improved attitude seems to go hand in hand with the development of confidence from gaining competency in the use of new techniques, which can often take place within a fairly brief time period (Sparks, 1988; Spooner, 1982). All day workshops of a week or so in length have proven to be effective in promoting teachers to apply acquired knowledge on a continued basis (NSF, 1988; Greabell, 1990).

The purpose of the project described in this study was to provide opportunities for the improvement of hands-on science and mathematics instruction to the elementary teachers in the rural schools of New Mexico. Most of the rural schools in New Mexico have large concentrations of Hispanic or Native American students. These students are often in need even more so than the non-minority students in mathematics and science education due to their characteristic underrepresentation in such courses and consequently mathematics, science, and technology careers (Chipman & Thomas, 1984; Thomas, 1986). Within the next few decades the predominant portion of our labor force will cease to be white males (National Research Council [NRC], 1989, pp. 20-22). Since an increasingly larger percentage of new careers are science and technology related, we must get minorities and females involved in order to make the most efficient use of human resources. Without such participation, our country will not be competitive in the world market, which will result in a reduced standard of living (James & Kurtz, 1985; NRC, 1989, pp. 4-9).

The summer inservice workshop in this project focused on three specific goal areas:

1. Improvement of instructional skills that impart science knowledge and concepts to children through the use of hands-on teacher-made equipment.

2. Improvement of teacher attitude towards the teaching of science and mathematics through an increase in confidence and a reduction in mathematics anxiety.
3. Participation by minority teachers in order to improve their success as role models in science and mathematics for minority students.

METHOD

Workshop Format and Content

A six-day summer workshop was designed for elementary teachers to enroll in pairs, one pair from each participating rural school district. At least one of the two teachers in each pair was required to be a minority. This was to insure that minority participation would be at least fifty percent. Ethnic make-up of the participants (N=39) was 17 Anglos, 16 Hispanics, 2 American Indians, 1 Black, and 3 others (of which one was Hawaiian). The project provided room and board for all participants at New Mexico State University, as well as tuition and fees so that each participant received two hours of graduate credit for satisfactory completion of the workshop. Each day the schedule included both the construction of teacher-made manipulatives and demonstration and practice in their appropriate uses for instruction.

Selection of the specific materials and activities included in the workshop were made according to the following four criteria: (a) ability of the teacher to construct the manipulative without undue inconvenience, (b) usefulness in the classroom for teaching accepted state mathematics and science competencies, science process skills, and NCTM standards, (c) low expense and availability of materials, and (d) student appeal. In preparation for the workshop, a detailed manual was created, which included eleven mathematics manipulatives and ten hands-on science activities, each with instructions on how teachers can construct them from readily available materials, and then several hands-on activities for which the manipulatives can be used (Hadfield, 1989). Many of the activities included in the manual were suggested by pre-existing sources such as journal articles or commercial kits. In such cases the sources were listed to give credit where due, and also in hopes that the teacher might explore further uses of the same materials.

The eleven math manipulatives were as follows: number blocks, attribute shapes, chip trading, polyhedron models, decimal squares, circular geoboards, arithmetic tiles, fraction disks, integer abacus, probability spinners, and tangrams. The activities associated with these manipulatives included the following competency areas: prenumeration, counting, place value, whole number operations, addition and subtraction algorithms, multiplication and division algorithms, fractions, decimals, percents, number theory, geometry, probability, integers, and critical thinking.

The ten science activities were as follows: circuit boards, chromatography, fingerprinting, balloon races, ball bounce, Bernoulli's principle, flying gyroscopes, inclined plane acceleration, pendulums, and Rutherford's box. The competencies associated with these activities included the following areas: conductivity and circuits, chromatography, classification of data, volume and displacement, gravity, velocity, air pressure and motion, flight, mass, pendulums and periodicity, and atomic structure. Most of the science process skills were used in several experiments.

Materials primarily included poster board, wood, nails, wire, paint, string, glue, straws, etc. After 60 to 90 minutes of construction time for each of the manipulatives, up to two hours was spent in demonstration and teaching practice with the finished products. At the close of the workshop, each teacher was furnished plastic crates to transport all of their teacher-made manipulatives. They were asked to lead inservices for their district, and to share their materials. They were informed that follow-up visits to their district would be made, in order to find out if they had disseminated the knowledge and materials, as well as to collect information on how receptive the students and the teachers were to the various materials and ideas.

Evaluation

A pretest was given on the opening day of the workshop, and was then administered again as a posttest on the last afternoon of the week-long workshop. The test had six sections of questions. The three mathematics sections included knowledge of math manipulative use, mathematics confidence, and mathematics attitude (anxiety). The math manipulative knowledge section consisted of twenty-seven multiple choice items which were directed specifically toward the manipulatives used in the workshop. The mathematics confidence section consisted of seventeen questions on a Likert-type scale that questioned how confident the teachers were with the use of certain manipulatives and the teaching of specific competencies through their use. The mathematics attitude scale was adapted from Ferguson's Phobus Inventory (Ferguson, 1986), and also consisted of a Likert-type scale to be applied to thirty questions that rated subjects on their discomfort with numerical tasks, mathematics tests, and mathematical abstraction tasks.

The three sections of the test which contained science questions included science knowledge, science teaching confidence, and science teaching attitude (science anxiety). The hands-on science knowledge section consisted of twenty multiple choice items which were content oriented, but were directed specifically toward the lab activities used in the workshop. The science teaching confidence section consisted of ten items on a Likert-type scale that questioned how confident the teachers were with the use of certain hands-on materials and the teaching of specific competencies through their use. The science attitude scale also consisted of a Likert-type scale applied to twenty-one questions that rated subjects on their discomfort with science and science teaching tasks. Demographic data were also collected, including number of years of teaching experience, ethnic group, grade level taught, school size, number of graduate courses, and age. At the conclusion of the workshop, photos of the participants were taken, and news releases were sent to their school districts. Local newspapers then circulated articles describing the workshop, complete with photos of their representatives.

Follow-up visits were made to each of the twenty-one school districts. The original participants were interviewed, and were also instructed to fill out an anonymous questionnaire concerning their views of the project. Some of the questions inquired as to which and how many of the materials and activities they had used, which were most effective, what the student response was like, and if they had increased their total time per week teaching science or mathematics. Also it was asked if they had done an inservice or shared materials with their peers, and if they felt that their confidence in teaching science or mathematics had improved.

Data Analysis

Paired t-tests were used to compare pretest and posttest scores in all six areas: math manipulative knowledge, math confidence, math attitude, science knowledge, science teaching confidence, and science teaching attitude. Comparisons were also made with a series of one-way ANOVA's for possible differences in each of these six variables at the various levels of six demographic variables. Results of the follow-up interviews and questionnaires were also quantified to give an overall picture of the project outcome.

RESULTS

Table 1

Degree of Improvement in Six Test Subscales

		Pretest	Posttest	Difference	*t*	*p* < |*t*|
Math Knowledge	*M*	4.41	22.21	17.79	33.65	.0001
	SD	2.92	2.86			
Math Confidence	*M*	46.18	65.31	19.13	5.33	.0001
	SD	13.25	18.70			
Math Anxiety	*M*	92.79	74.05	-18.74	-4.27	.0001
	SD	29.55	24.95			
Science Knowledge	*M*	7.41	16.60	9.18	18.53	.0001
	SD	2.88	1.97			
Science Confidence	*M*	26.95	39.77	12.82	7.47	.0001
	SD	8.08	8.74			
Science Anxiety	*M*	53.46	51.79	-1.67	-0.51	.6137
	SD	17.61	18.49			

Table 1 reveals that pretest-posttest differences in five of the six areas were significant at the $p < .0001$ level. It was not surprising that the participants showed significant gains in mathematics manipulative knowledge, mathematics confidence, science knowledge, and science teaching confidence, since the workshop itself was directed so specifically toward these areas. The significant reduction in mathematics anxiety was also pleasing, even though it was not expected to occur. Perhaps the increase in confidence in the teachers' ability to effectively teach math with the manipulatives led directly to their reduction in anxiety and improvement of attitude.

There was no significant improvement in science teaching attitude (science anxiety). It had been hoped that the confidence gained in the teachers' ability to effectively teach science with hands-on materials would lead directly to an improvement. The mean score of 53.46 out of a possible 105 points on the pretest indicates a fairly positive attitude towards science at the outset, perhaps making it more difficult to show significant improvement. The fact that the workshop was voluntary should also imply that teachers who thoroughly detested science would not attend. Another explanation is that the science attitude scale may not have been a valid instrument. It was constructed specifically for this project, with no previous norming, and therefore its validity and reliability are suspect. The items on the instrument may refer to teaching practices too much, like "I postpone science lessons". It would be hard to expect a different answer on these items at the end of the workshop, before the teachers actually go back to their classrooms and have a chance to establish whether or not they have changed their "routine" towards science. Follow-up visits to the schools did find substantial improvement in science teaching, this suggests that the science teaching attitude section of the instrument was not valid.

The series of one-way ANOVA tests found no significant differences in the levels of teacher age, experience, years of higher education, grade level taught, or ethnicity with respect to any of the three dependent variables of mathematics manipulative knowledge, mathematics confidence, or mathematics attitude. The only significant findings were that with respect to both mathematics anxiety ($F = 8.86$, $df = 38$, $p < .0061$) and science confidence ($F = 8.85$, $df = 38$, $p < .0085$), school size was a factor . Teachers from schools of less than two hundred and fifty students ($n = 16$, $m = 50.39$) had significantly higher levels of mathematics anxiety than did teachers from schools with two hundred and fifty or more students ($n = 23$, $m = 40.13$). Also, teachers from schools of less than two hundred and fifty students ($n = 16$, $m = 23.88$) had significantly lower levels of science teaching confidence than did teachers from schools with two hundred and fifty or more students ($n = 23$, $m = 29.09$). This reflects a lack of confidence in both mathematics and science in general, which is not surprising if one accepts the previously mentioned premise that professional isolation in the smaller schools presents certain problems. The follow-up visits to the schools resulted in overwhelming compliments on the experiences during attendance of the workshop, and the usefulness of its content and materials. Many teachers suggested planning another similar workshop for themselves and others who missed the first opportunity. Although only 60% conducted actual inservices, the information was still disseminated to peers at least to some degree in all cases. The popularity of the various materials is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Summary of Mathematics and Science Activity Follow-Up Usage

ACTIVITY	NUMBER	AVERAGE	WEIGHTED SCORE
Mathematics			
Number Blocks	15	4.8	72
Tangrams	13	5.5	72
Chip Trading	14	4.9	68
Attribute Shapes	8	5.9	47
Arithmetic Tiles	10	3.8	38
Circular Geoboard	7	5.1	36
Fraction Disks	6	5.3	32
Polyhedron Models	5	4.4	22
Decimal Squares	3	4.7	14
Integer Abacus	2	3.5	7
Probability Spinners	0	0.0	0
Science			
Circuit Boards	13	4.9	64
Inclined Plane	14	4.4	61
Pendulums	8	5.0	40
Balloon Races	8	4.3	34
Chromatography	8	4.1	33
Rutherford's Box	6	5.3	32
Fingerprinting	5	3.8	19
Flying Gyroscopes	3	5.0	15
Ball Bounce	3	5.0	15
Bernoulli's Principle	3	5.0	15

Note: Number indicates the total number of times each activity was reported as one of the six most used. Average is the mean of all responses, with 6 as the highest possible rating, and 1 as the lowest. Weighted Score is the product of Number x Average.

The popularity of number blocks was not surprising, in that they were a combination of Diene's blocks and Cuisenaire rods, which are quite useful for teaching counting, place value, and basic whole number operations. Chip trading, attribute blocks, and arithmetic tiles were also rated highly, probably for similar reasons. Tangrams were a surprise, because we felt that they were probably already in heavy use by most teachers. Apparently not. Polyhedron models appeared to be the most fun during the workshop phase, but perhaps they were too much trouble to assemble, or not pertinent to the competencies. Decimal squares were rated disappointingly low. They are effective for teaching decimals and percents, and students seriously need manipulatives in these areas. Perhaps our workshop presentation of this manipulative needs improvement.

In the science area, the popularity of the circuit board and inclined plane activities was not surprising in that they both drew a lot of excitement during the workshop. The circuit board activity promoted both creativity and competition. It allowed one person to design a circuit and then their challenger to run a series of tests to determine what the secret circuit design was. The inclined plane activity also had a competitive aspect when students released toy cars to roll down the plane and then measured their velocity and total distance traveled.

The pendulum activity was rated higher than expected. Due to its lack of fancy equipment and the more advance level of required mathematics in the graphing portion, it was a surprise to see it so well received. Apparently, though, it created an effective learning situation. The Bernoulli's principle experiment was probably rated low because it was a little over the heads of the elementary students. The flying gyroscopes experiment was quite fun in the workshop, but teachers commented that it was a lot of activity without much conceptual foundation. A lot of fun, but no significant learning. Generally, though, most of the activities were effectively used in the elementary classroom.

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The most important implication of this project is that teachers can benefit from a workshop of limited time length. In light of the significant reduction in mathematics anxiety scores and the improvement in so many other areas, it appears that inservices and workshops could be one key to counteracting the professional isolation of teachers in small rural schools. The participants showed interest and involvement, improved in both content knowledge and techniques with hands-on materials, and they have a tendency to use and share the materials and ideas in their own classrooms. Many science and math educators as well as school administrators assume that elementary teachers are well versed in the use of manipulatives and hands-on activities because of college methods courses. We found that this is not the case. Teachers had not used many mathematics manipulatives or hands-on science activities, and were not very familiar with them. It is encouraging, that they were receptive to the new materials and ideas, and were excited to share their own creations with peers and students. It is also important that their interest was without regard to their age, grade level, or experience. More workshops of this type are recommended, as they seem to be a viable part of the solution to enhancing our current elementary mathematics and science education programs, particularly in small rural schools.

The activities during the inservice apparently resulted in more effective science and mathematics teaching in the following ways:

1. Sparked creativity in teachers.
2. Made more hands-on materials available to them.
3. Allowed teachers and students to see alternative applications of common materials.
4. Helped teachers with ideas on how to teach science on a limited budget.

5. Improved teacher attitudes towards the teaching of science and math.
6. Improved teacher knowledge and skills in the teaching of science and math.

The potential for generalizing the project findings to similar situations across the country is self-evident. Similar detailed inservice manuals could be developed by other districts.

In summary, students benefit by having hands-on experiences in mathematics and science. These experiences can be partially provided by common everyday materials with which the students are familiar, rather than expensive equipment. Teachers benefit by having a deeper understanding of the equipment and how it works; having the ability to instruct effectively with it; and the ability to design new and interesting materials. Administrators benefit from the low cost hands-on materials. The college or university implementing the program benefits from having built the seed that blossoms into a low cost version of effective science and mathematics education, and a network of partnership with rural districts throughout the state. The state benefits by having a vehicle to implement and sustain their recommended competencies in mathematics and science education.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Veronica E. Gold
Co-Presenter: Ellen Williams
Steven Russell
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

Drs. Veronica Gold, Ellen U. Williams,
& Steven Russell, Associate Professors
Department of Special Education
Bowling Green State University

Intervention Assistance Teams in Rural Ohio Schools

Graden, Casey, and Bonstrom (1985) indicated that prereferral intervention systems were designed to provide consultative support to regular education in order to a) help these professionals develop and implement pedagogical skills required for meeting the needs of a diverse student population, b) reduce student referral for multi-factored assessment, and c) reduce inappropriate placement of students in special education programs. These goals are timely in view of the fact that in rural areas, 75 percent of students referred for multi-factored assessment are assessed and approximately 65 percent of referred students are placed in special education programs (Algozzine, Ysseldyke, & Christenson (1983). Special education service delivery in rural areas is confounded further by the fact that 64 to 66 percent of schools have reported tremendous difficulty in recruiting and retaining special educators and support personnel, respectively (Helge, 1984). In general, it appears that the "demand" for special education services is growing in rural schools while these schools are challenged by a lack of certificated special education personnel.

Rural schools in Ohio have implemented the prereferral intervention system described by Graden, Casey, and Christenson (1985) to circumvent the "referral-to-replacement scenario" common in today's schools (Harrington & Gibson, 1986). The Intervention Assistance Team (IAT), designed by the Ohio State Department of Education in conjunction with selected Ohio Schools, consists of a group of teachers, support personnel, and administrators who provide suggestions or direct assistance to students and teachers (Intervention Assistance Teams, 1985).

Further, IATs have the potential to promote changes in the functions of support personnel. Increasingly, their primary responsibilities shift from serving students experiencing failure directly to serving teachers of these students (Graden, Casey, & Christenson, 1985). Yet the emphasis on consultation through the IAT may not contribute to the reduction of problems associated with special education service delivery. For example, most teachers expect referred students to be placed in special education programs (Ysseldyke, Pianta, Christenson, Wang, & Algozzine; 1983) while other teachers perceive consultation as minimally effective (Martens, Peterson, Will, & Cirone; 1986).

Although the goals of the IAT are admirable, in view of the fact that there may be resistance to the consultation model upon which the IAT is based; this study endeavored to investigate whether the IAT perceived itself as an alternative to special education and what effect the IAT had on rates of referral to special education.

Method

Subjects

The subjects for this study were selected from among the 615 public school districts in the state of Ohio. A stratified random sample was drawn based on the statistical procedure developed by the Academy for Contemporary Problems (1978) for use by the Ohio Department of Education's statistical information system. A total of 146 school districts representing urban, suburban, and rural schools and reflecting the population distribution in the state were randomly selected for inclusion in this study.

Superintendents of these districts were sent a letter to determine if they had an IAT and if they would be willing to have the chairperson of their IAT participate in this study. Fifty-three superintendents responded affirmatively to both questions. Despite efforts to obtain a stratified random sample, superintendents who declined to participate precluded achievement of that goal. It is probable that school districts of superintendents agreeing to participate in the study reflected primarily rural schools since research on the IAT by Phillips and Hannah (1991; see notes) suggested that 74 percent of urban schools in Ohio had no organized teams. However, the proportion of schools in each category is unknown.

Since superintendents indicated that there were multiple schools within their systems that maintained the IAT, 119 IAT chairpersons (subjects) were sent a survey. Eighty-three (70%) of the 119 eligible subjects responded. Three of the responses were not analyzed because the respondents indicated that the functions of their team did not include early intervention to students experiencing academic failure or consultation with referring teachers. For example, one respondent indicated that the purpose of the team was to reduce drug usage among students. Following the disqualification of responses from three subjects, a total of 80 (67%) of the subjects' responses were analyzed.

Instrumentation

Subjects were asked to respond to 29 questions; four of which required a yes/no response, 17 of which required selection of a response from a multiple choice format, six of which used a three or four point rating scale, and two questions which required short written responses. Items in the survey related to the type of school and its community setting, composition and function of the IAT, communication with parents, sources of and reasons for referral, and benefits to professional staff and students. Finally, subjects were asked to indicate the IAT recommendations for the three most recent referrals processed prior to receiving the survey.

Results

Mean, frequency and percentage were calculated for each multiple choice or rating scale response. When calculating percentage, all values were rounded to the nearest whole. Seventy-one percent (n=57) of the schools sponsoring the IAT were classified as elementary schools and 69 percent of these teams were chaired by school principals. Thus, it appeared that the majority of subjects responding to the survey were elementary school principals. Three subjects classified their schools as middle schools, five subjects indicated their schools were junior or senior high schools, and 10 classified their schools as other or not fitting the definition of an elementary, middle, junior, or senior high school. Following principals, subjects reported that school counselors (9%, n=7), school psychologists (8%, n=6), or assistant principals (6%, n=5) chaired IAT meetings. Pupil personnel directors, LD teachers, elementary teachers, special services coordinators or intervention coordinators each were reported to chair IAT meetings in one percent of the responses.

Most subjects reported the following IAT member composition: regular classroom teachers (95%, n=76), principals (88%, n=70), school psychologists (74%, n=59), guidance counselors (73%, n=58), and special education teachers (55%, n=44). Nearly all (93%, n=73) of the subjects indicated that team members were either appointed or had volunteered. The most frequently reported reasons for establishing the IAT were administrative initiative (73%, n=58) and high referral rates to special education programs (51%, n=41). Other reasons cited for establishing the IAT were teacher request, low pupil achievement, mainstreaming concerns, teacher complaints,and high retention rates.

Subjects were asked to indicate what percentage of parents were informed of their child's referral to the IAT. Forty-four percent of the subjects indicated that between 80 and 100 percent of parents were informed. However, 33 percent of subjects stated that 20 percent or fewer parents were informed of the referral. When asked about parent participation, sixty-two percent of subjects reported that fewer than 20 percent of parents were invited to share information or participate in the decision making process.

As indicated in Table 1, regular classroom teachers made the majority of the referrals to the IAT due to students' academic problems in reading (80%, n=62) or multiple subject areas (76%, n=58). Regular classroom teachers referring students made between five and seven or more referrals annually. There was little variation among subjects regarding techniques used by the IAT to resolve referrals as indicated in Table 2. IAT teams were as likely to recommend referral to special education as often as they would recommend modification of teaching techniques or the classroom environment.

Insert Tables 1 and 2 about here

Participants were asked to identify the last three cases addressed by the IAT and what resolutions were offered. Out of 188 resolutions cited by subjects, 90 were recommendations for referral to special education.

The survey asked subjects to report whether or not certain benefits were evident in their school as a result of the IAT. Data in Table 3 indicates that 59 percent of the subjects perceived that it was evident that the team decreased the number of students inappropriately referred to special education.

Insert Table 3 about here

Sixty-two percent (n=48) of the participants reported that the IAT offered structured support and assistance to teachers in an attempt to create academic success for referred students. Concomitantly, subjects perceived that problems were tackled as a group and that the IAT increased communication among staff.

However, only one-third of the subjects reported that it was evident that the IAT met a broad range of pupil needs or served as a stimulus for teacher growth. Less than 20 percent of the subjects perceived that it was evident that the IAT helped teachers become more skillful in implementing instructional strategies or in feeling more successful in their teaching. Indeed, fewer than one-third of the subjects did perceive evidence of improved teacher confidence as indicated in Table 4.

Insert Table 4 about here

In summary, it appears that IAT chairpersons perceive the team services as beneficial because of the group oriented solutions, the quality and variety of suggestions made to referring teachers, a reduction of inappropriate referrals to special education, and increased communication among staff. The majority of subjects did not perceive the IAT as meeting a broad range of pupil needs or of direct benefit relative to teachers' professional growth.

Discussion and Recommendations

IAT chairpersons perceived a decrease in the number of students inappropriately referred to special education. Further, these subjects reported that referral of a student to the team did not increase probability of referral for special education. However, almost half (48%) reported student referral for multifactored assessment as the IAT recommendation for the three most recent students referred to the team, and, as indicated in

Table 2, an IAT recommendation for special education was as probable as a recommendation to modify teaching technique or to confer with parents. While over half of the subjects reported a perception of reduced inappropriate referrals to special education, almost half of the real IAT recommendations reported were student referral to special education. In light of these discrepancies, it appears that there may be significant variance between the perceptions of IAT chairpersons and real recommendations made by the team. Data provided by subjects in this study support the hypothesis that the IAT may, in reality, function as a pre-screening committee for student referral to special education programs. Similarly, almost two-thirds of the subjects reported that the teams provided referring teachers with a variety of instructional strategies while, in practice, that particular type of referral resolution was made in approximately 40 percent of cases reviewed.

Interestingly, less than 30 percent of the subjects perceived the IAT as helping referring teachers become skilled in implementing instructional strategies or feeling successful in their teaching; yet, two-thirds of the subjects perceived that the instructional strategies suggested by the team did help referring teachers create more successful learning experiences for students. It appears that subjects, primarily elementary school principals, did not perceive a relationship between improved student performance and increased instructional skill of referring teachers. Since less than one-third of the subjects perceived that the IAT helped teachers increase in confidence, skill level, or feelings of success as perhaps IAT members view themselves as ill-equipped to respond to professional needs of teachers relative to their skill or confidence.

Data in Table 1 suggests that elementary school teachers refer five to seven or more students in their class each year. Assuming for a moment that each referral is for a different student in a class of 25 students, as many as 28 percent of the students may be referred to the IAT. A high rate of referral suggests that teachers may be using the IAT as a point of referral to special education since data from this study suggests that the IAT is as likely to make a recommendation for special education as it is any other recommendation.

In conclusion, subjects give the IAT "high marks" for its ability to support teachers, increase staff communication, offer viable instructional strategies, and reduce student referrals to special education. Subjects also report that the IAT is less successful in meeting a broad range of teachers' professional needs or increasing teachers' confidence and skill. Finally, a significant discrepancy appears to exist between perceived and actual resolution of student referrals to the IAT. In light of results of this study, the following suggestions related to research and professional practice are made.

Research Recommendations

1. A major goal of the IAT is to reduce the number of students referred and placed in special education yet, this study yields qualitative information which suggests that the IAT is the point of referral for special education. Since quantitative information is needed to confirm or reject this finding, future studies should compare the number of students referred by the IAT in contrast to those referred by other groups or individuals.

2. Both the training and function, respectively, of IAT members may affect the nature of resolutions suggested by the IAT. For example, professionals trained to assess students and whose role in the school system is child study may frequently recommend educational assessment of referred students. Consequently, future studies should explore the relationship between these variables and IAT recommendations for referred students.

Professional Practice Recommendations

1. Subjects suggest that IAT instructional recommendations may not improve confidence or professional practice of teachers. In an attempt to remedy this problem, perhaps IAT members should provide in-class assistance and work to help teachers generalize newly acquired skills.

2. IAT members should discuss and define the role parents may assume relative to IAT recommendations.

3. Data suggests that some IAT teams and teachers use the IAT as a vehicle to refer students to special education rather than as a professional resource. Since the focus of the IAT is on how to teach students rather than on how to categorize them, the IAT should consider eliminating the option of making student referrals to special education.

4. To emphasize the importance of instruction and academic success of students, those in leadership roles should provide meaningful recognition for teachers who with the IAT, contribute to academic success of "at risk" students.

5. Since one of the goals of the IAT is to reduce the number of students referred to or placed annually in special education, it should keep peers apprised of the number of students referred to or placed in special education and how referral and placement rates compare with those of previous years.

6. To make it possible for the IAT to expand or successfully implement recommendations it makes, individual team members should have knowledge skills or experience in working with students with learning or behavior problems or "at risk" students.

7. While the IAT is derived from consultant and itinerant teacher service delivery models for the purpose of reducing referrals to special education, another strategy which may also accomplish the same goal is to employ dually certified, special education/regular education teachers to staff regular classes. Dually certified teachers have been better prepared for working with students with learning or behavior problems.

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Notes

We gratefully acknowledge the contributions of Joy Rohn in the data collection and analysis and of Lisa Phillips and Ann Hannah for information on percentage of rural schools with IATs.

Table 1

Rank Order and Mean Response of Individuals Making the Majority of the Referrals to the IAT

	Response Choice					
	0	1	2	3	4	
Position	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	$\bar{x}$
Regular classroom teachers	1(1)	4(5)	12(15)	5(6)	57(72)	3.43
Administrative personnel	8(13)	19(31)	21(34)	7(12)	6(10)	1.74
Parents	14(26)	17(31)	13(24)	3(6)	8(15)	1.53
Guidance counselor	15(27)	16(29)	14(25)	5(9)	6(11)	1.48
Support staff	13(26)	24(47)	9(18)	2(4)	3(6)	1.18
Special education teacher	17(29)	23(40)	14(24)	0(0)	4(7)	1.16
School psychologist	24(46)	20(39)	7(14)	2(4)	4(8)	.98
Chapter 1 teachers	18(35)	20(39)	7(14)	4(8)	3(6)	.88
Other	4(67)	1(17)	1(17)	0(0)	0(0)	.04

Note. The following scale was used by participants: 0 = no referrals made per year, 1 = 1-2 referrals made per year, 2 = 3-4 referrals made per year, 3 = 5-6 referrals made per year, 4 = 7 or more referrals made per year.

Table 2

Rank Order of Techniques Used to Resolve Referrals to the IAT

Type of resolution	N	$\bar{x}$
Modification of teaching techniques	77	1.69
Parent conferences	74	1.70
Referral for special education	76	1.74
Modification of classroom environment	74	1.91
Behavior modification program	75	1.99

Note. Mean scores are based on the following four point numerical rating scale: 1 = frequently, 2 = sometimes, 3 = seldom, 4 = never.

Table 3

Benefits to the School from the IAT

	Response Choice			
	1	2	3	Total
Benefit	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	N (%)
Problems are tackled as a group	55 (71)	19 (25	3 (4)	77 (100)
Teachers receive structured support and assistance	48 (62)	21 (27)	9 (12)	78 (100)
Reduction of inappropriate referrals to special education	45 (59)	23 (30)	8 (11)	76 (100)
Increase communication among staff	43 (58)	27 (37)	4 (5)	74 (100)
Variety of instructional strategies made available	39 (52)	27 (36)	9 (12)	75 (100)
Meet broader range of pupil needs	26 (35)	33(45)	15 (20)	74 (100)
Serves as a stimulus for teacher growth	23 (32)	33 (45)	17 (23)	73 (100)

Note. Percentages based on the following three-point numerical rating scale were used: 1 = evident at this time, 2 = somewhat evident at this time, 3 = not evident at this time.

Table 4

Percentage and Frequency Values For How the IAT has Helped Teachers

	Response Choice			
	1	2	3	Total
Method of helping	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	N (%)
Increased access to support staff	36 (49)	30 (41)	8 (11)	74 (100)
More confident in resolving classroom problems	24 (33)	41 (55)	9 (12)	74 (100)
More confident in ability to meet pupil needs	22 (30)	42 (57)	10 (14)	74 (100)
More skillful in implementing instructional strategies	14 (19)	42 (58)	16 (22)	72 (100)
Feel more successful in their teaching	13 (17)	39 (53)	22 (30)	74 (100)

Note. The following three point numerical rating scale was used by participants to rate the methods listed above: 1 = evident, 2 = somewhat evident, 3 = not evident at this time.

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Doris Helge
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 18, 1991
Time: 2:45pm- 3:45pm

Doris Helge, Ph.D.
National Rural Development Institute
Western Washington University
Bellingham, Washington 98225
(206) 676-3576
May, 1990

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

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A National Study Regarding At-Risk Students

INTRODUCTION

This summary provides an overview of a national study conducted by the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium (NRSSC) and the American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES). Both organizations are headquartered at the National Rural Development Institute, Woodring College of Education, Western Washington University in Bellingham, Washington.

The survey was designed to compare the incidence of various types of at-risk students in rural, urban, and suburban school districts. The study also compared incidences of at-risk students with one or more disabilities. Incidences of various categories of at-risk students at the preschool, elementary, middle, and high school levels were also compared.

An "at-risk student" was operationally defined as one who is involved with one or more of the following categories:

Substance abuse
Suicide attempt/depression/low self-esteem
Child abuse (physical, emotional, verbal, or sexual)
Poverty
Child of alcoholic or substance abuser
Illiteracy
Migrant
School dropout
Sexually active/pregnant
Involvement with crime
Minority and poor
Disability

METHODOLOGY

A total of 1,200 surveys were mailed to school administrators in all states, and a total of 312 surveys were returned. This represents a return of approximately 25%. Of the 312 returns, 185 of the respondents were from rural areas, 71 were urban, and 56 suburban.

FINDINGS

Primary findings included the following:

* Rural school respondents estimated higher percentages of children, both handicapped and non-handicapped, in the at-risk categories. (Thirty-nine separate comparisons of rural and non-rural estimates were made. Rural children fared worse than non-rural children in 34 of the 39 statistical comparisons.)

* Estimates for at-risk mildly handicapped students exceeded those for non-handicapped rural school students in 20 instances, about half of the time. In non-rural schools, mildly handicapped students exceeded non-handicapped students in 14 instances.

* Numerous interesting comparisons resulted regarding differences by at-risk category. Examples follow:

- 17.7 percent of non-handicapped rural high school students were estimated to be substance abusers, compared with 10.1 percent in non-rural districts.

- 12.3 percent of non-handicapped rural elementary schoolchildren were found to be suffering depression/suicide attempts/low self-esteem, compared with 10 percent of urban and 8.5 percent of suburban youngsters. Among learning disabled and other mildly handicappped youngsters, depression/suicide attempt/low self-esteem was a problem among an estimated 16.9 percent of rural grade school pupils, but only 9.5 percent of urban and 12.4 percent of suburban pupils.

- 25.7 percent of non-handicapped rural high school pupils were considered sexually active, compared with 22.5 percent of urban and 20.9 percent of suburban students. Among mildly handicapped rural high schoolers, 26.7 percent were sexually active, compared with only 15.3 percent of urban and 18.2 percent of suburban children.

- 6.7 percent of non-handicapped rural middle school youngsters were said to be involved in crime, compared with an estimated 5.6 percent in urban and suburban schools.

- 12.7 percent of rural preschoolers without handicaps were considered victims of child abuse, compared with 11.9 percent in urban and 9.6 percent in suburban districts.

* **Table 1** below depicts data differences by at-risk category, comparing handicapped and non-handicapped students. The at-risk categories are listed in decreasing order according to the percentages for handicapped students. The rankings are the same for the non-handicapped students with one exception (relating the category of "minority and poor" to the category of "child of an alcoholic parent").

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TABLE 1

At-Risk Category	Handicapped	Non-Handicapped
Dysfunctional family	21.1	19.3
Poverty	20.7	18.8
Suicide/depression/low self-esteem	15.5	13.7
Minority and poor	14.7	12.5
Child, alcoholic parent	11.8	12.2
Child abuse	9.3	11.4
Migrant	3.6	6.8

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS

Rural and non-rural school personnel estimated relatively large percentages of their students to be "at risk." The fact that rural children fared worse than non-rural children in 34 out of 39 statistical comparisons in the study merits concern. The analysis suggests that the social and economic strains facing rural students are every bit as bad, perhaps worse, than those facing inner-city youth. The images of rural children leading wholesome, trouble-free lives compared with youth in more crowded settings may be in need of revision.

As two-thirds of America's school districts and one-third of the nation's children are rural, it is critical that society address these findings. Many rural areas are known for their close-knit communities and family involvement in schools. Others are known for a lack of parental involvement.

The rural tenet of fiercely independent citizens who "take care of their own" and the intimacy of many rural settings can actually contribute to problems. Residents may be less willing to side with an abused or neglected child against a parent they have known for years. Citizens may be employed by such individuals or frequently see them at community functions. A guarantee of confidentiality to a person reporting abuse may be difficult to believe. Citizens may be reticent to use counseling services.

Other obstacles include the lack of social, psychological, and family counseling services in remote, impoverished rural districts. Many rural communities have inadequate medical, prenatal care, special education, foster care, sex education, and instruction designed to prevent drug and alcohol abuse. Career training and vocational education opportunities may be limited.

In many rural areas, conditions that can breed school failure have worsened in recent years. Poverty, family instability, depression and suicide, teen pregnancy, and alcohol and drug abuse have increased as farming, timber, coal, and some fishing industries have declined. Limited employment opportunities feed low aspirations regarding graduation and employment. Low self-esteem may become pervasive.

These conditions have occured at a time when America has experienced an explosion of social problems such as increases in latchkey children, drug and alcohol abuse, crime, sexually transmitted diseases, and the breakup of the traditional American family.

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Most at-risk students exhibit more than one of the at-risk characteristics indicated on page one of this summary. Typically, low self-esteem and/or the existence of a dysfunctional family overlay other characteristics.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- The federal and state governments must recognize the extent to which rural students are at risk. Intra and interagency efforts should address collaborative problem solution. Federal and state initiatives should be analyzed regarding their ability to address the needs of at-risk students. States should assess the preservice training of teachers and other personnel related to at-risk students.
- At the local level, collaboration should involve state and local education agencies, university training programs, social agencies (education, foster care, counseling, job training, juvenile incarceration, and others). Existing rural outreach systems such as cooperative extension and public health agencies, civic groups, and volunteer organizations should also be involved in program planning and implementation.
- The link between high self esteem and positive academic grades, school attendance, and social skills must be clearly recognized. The link between poor self esteem and at-risk conditions (e.g., teen pregnancy, delinquency, depression, substance abuse, dysfunctional families, etc.) must also be recognized.
- While at-risk students need and deserve academic tutoring, mentor programs, career counseling and vocational education, health and social services, and other support systems, the most basic ingredient to changing the serious problems of at-risk students, their families, and communities can be best affected by consistently enhancing self-esteem. Parents, teachers, other service providers, and community members need to learn skills that enable students in pain to identify and express their feelings, validate themselves, and gain a sense of self worth and personal power.
- Holistic program approaches should be planned that address the emotional, academic, physical, and social needs of at-risk students and involve families in program planning and implementation.
- Information should be gathered and nationally disseminated regarding effective programs for at-risk students and their families and for related staff and parent training.

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

For further information regarding these studies or effective practices of working with at-risk students, contact: Dr. Doris Helge, Director, National Rural Development Institute, Woodring College of Education, Western Washington University, Bellingham, Washington 98225 or telephone (206) 676-3576.

A NATIONAL STUDY REGARDING AT-RISK STUDENTS

MAY, 1990

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ABSTRACT

Rural and non-rural school personnel estimated relatively large percentages of their students to be "at risk." The fact that rural children fared worse than non-rural children in 34 out of 39 statistical comparisons in the study merits concern. This analysis suggests that the social and economic strains facing rural students are at least as difficult as those facing inner-city youth.

Two-thirds of America's school districts and one-third of the nation's children are rural. While it is true that some rural communities are thriving, many rural areas are experiencing economic and social difficulties that are contributing to the development of at-risk children. Some positive rural cultural factors unfortunately can contribute to the problems of at-risk students. For example, the traditions of independence and individualism can mitigate against receiving counseling services. The intimacy of rural settings can conflict with guarantees of confidentiality when reporting child abuse.

Likewise, rural social, psychological, recreation, medical, and other services tend to be inadequate to address increasing social problems such as increased drug and alcohol abuse, sexually transmitted diseases, homeless individuals, crime, and the disintegration of the traditional American family. Many rural areas also lack adequate vocational and career education opportunities, prenatal care, special education, and staff development opportunities.

In communities with longstanding social, educational, and economic problems, citizens may develop low aspirations regarding education, graduation, and employment. Low self-esteem may become pervasive and students may have to exhibit wider ranges of "deviancy" before their behavior attracts the attention of the school or community.

As most news coverage emanates from urban areas demanding media attention, rural areas frequently receive inadequate attention by the media and by the federal and state governments.

Most at-risk students exhibit more than one at-risk characteristic. Typically, low self-esteem and/or the existence of a dysfunctional family overlay other characteristics. For example, national studies have consistently linked delinquents, child abusers, and victims of abuse with low self-esteem and/or dysfunctional families.

If our nation is to compete in a global economy and have citizens who are responsible, productive, and vote intelligently, the needs of all at-risk students and their families must be addresssed.

This report has summarized recommendations for the federal and state governments, educators of all types, other policymakers, teacher educators, parents, and related services personnel. It also describes essential components of programs for at-risk students, and related preservice and inservice training.

A NATIONAL STUDY REGARDING AT-RISK STUDENTS

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OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

An "at-risk student" was operationally defined as one who is involved with one or more of the following categories:

Substance abuse
Depression/suicide attempt/low self-esteem
Child abuse (physical, emotional, verbal, or sexual)
Poverty
Child of alcoholic or substance abuser
Illiteracy
Migrant
School dropout
Sexually active/pregnant
Involvement with crime
Minority and poor
Disability

A rural district was defined as a district in which the "number of inhabitants are fewer than 150 per square mile, or located in a county in which 60% or more of the population lives in communities of 5,000 or fewer." (Districts with more than 10,000 students and those within a standard metropolitan statistical area are automatically excluded by this definition.)

METHODOLOGY

A total of 1,200 surveys were mailed to school administrators in all states, and a total of 312 surveys were returned. This represents a return of approximately 25%. Of the 312 returns, 185 of the respondents were from rural areas, 71 were urban, and 56 suburban. The cover letter for the survey encouraged school personnel (including teachers and other service providers) to give their best estimates of the percentages of students falling into the at-risk categories listed on page 1. Anonymity was guaranteed to respondents, to increase the accuracy of responses. The comments in this document analyze the sample of respondents returning the survey.

SIGNIFICANCE TESTING OF SURVEY DATA

After the descriptive statistics from the data were scrutinized, they were analyzed by a repeated-measures analysis of variance. This analysis was performed by using the SPSSX MANOVA program. The analysis considered three factors: community (rural vs. suburban vs. urban combined); risk factors; and disability (non-handicapped vs. mildly handicapped). The first factor was a "between" factor (between subjects, which were the reporting school districts) while the other two were "within" factors. This analysis was performed separately for preschool, elementary, middle school, and high school levels.

The purpose of these analyses was to estimate which of the factors (and the interactions between them) yielded greater differences among the means than could be expected from random fluctuation. In other words, which factors were statistically significant?

The MANOVA program did not accept for analysis any "cases" (school districts) which had any missing data. That included completed surveys from many school districts. In some surveys only completed by preschools, this included more than half the data. Consequently, the preschool results must only be regarded as suggestive. Where significance was found, it would suggest that some of the differences between means of the factor were likely more than could be expected by chance.

The table indicates the factors for which analysis had significant differences. The main factors of community and at-risk conditions showed significance in most or all analyses. Out of sixteen possibilities for interaction effects (four interaction factors in each of four analyses), three showed significance.

The differences between community types for all risk factors and both non-handicapped and mildly handicapped were significant for all levels except preschool. In almost all cases, at-risk student estimates for rural communities exceeded non-rural. This was one of the most consistent findings discovered in the tables of means (Appendix A).

For all levels, there were significant differences between some of the various reported risk factors. That warrants inspection of the levels for the various risk factors as illustrated in the following table.

Concerning the interaction factors, significance was found for the community by risk factor interaction for high school and middle school levels. At the middle school level, there was an indication that the reported risk factors were different for handicapped and non-handicapped children.

TABLE I

Significant Factors (Main Effects and Interaction Effects in Four Analyses of Variance--Indicated by Probabilities)

	Analysis (by grade level)			
Source Variance	**Preschool**	**Elementary**	**Middle School**	**High School**
Community (C) (between subjects)		.019	.025	.018
Risk Factor (R) (within)	.019	<.001	<.001	<.001
Handicap (H) (within)				
C x R			.029	.037
C x H				
R x H			<.001	
R x C x H				

Figures above are probabilities given for F ratios yielded by the analyses. Blanks indicate non-significant Fs ($P > .05$).

FINDINGS

Appendix A provides statistical tables regarding comparisons of at-risk categories. The reader is encouraged to compare rural, urban, and suburban categories; preschool, elementary, middle, and high school grade levels; and handicapped (mild, moderate, and severe) vs. non-handicapped student data.

Primary findings include the following:

- Rural school respondents estimated higher percentages of children, both handicapped and non-handicapped, in the at-risk categories. (Thirty-nine separate comparisons of rural and non-rural estimates were made. Rural children fared worse than non-rural children in 34 of the 39 statistical comparisons.)

- Estimates for at-risk mildly handicapped students exceeded those for non-handicapped rural school students in 20 instances, about half of the time. In non-rural schools, mildly handicapped students exceeded non-handicapped students in 14 instances.

* Numerous interesting comparisons resulted regarding differences by at-risk category. Examples follow:

- 17.7 percent of non-handicapped rural high school students were estimated to be substance abusers, compared with 10.1 percent in non-rural districts.

- 12.3 percent of non-handicapped rural elementary schoolchildren were found to be suffering depression/suicide attempts/low self-esteem, compared with 10 percent of urban and 8.5 percent of suburban youngsters. Among learning disabled and other mildly handicappped youngsters, depression/suicide attempt/low self-esteem was a problem among an estimated 16.9 percent of rural grade school pupils, but only among 9.5 percent of urban and 12.4 percent of suburban pupils.

- 25.7 percent of non-handicapped rural high school pupils were considered sexually active, compared with 22.5 percent of urban and 20.9 percent of suburban students. Among mildly handicapped rural high schoolers, 26.7 percent were sexually active, compared with only 15.3 percent of urban and 18.2 percent of suburban children.

- 6.7 percent of non-handicapped rural middle school youngsters were said to be involved in crime, compared with an estimated 5.6 percent in urban and suburban schools.

- 12.7 percent of rural preschoolers without handicaps were considered victims of child abuse, compared with 11.9 percent in urban and 9.6 percent in suburban districts.

* Table II below depicts data differences by at-risk category across the nation, comparing handicapped and non-handicapped students. The at-risk categories are listed in decreasing order according to the percentages for handicapped students. The rankings are the same for the non-handicapped students with one exception (relating the category of "minority and poor" to the category of "child of an alcoholic parent").

TABLE II

At-Risk Category	Handicapped	Non-Handicapped
Dysfunctional family	21.1	19.3
Poverty	20.7	18.8
Suicide/depression/low self-esteem	15.5	13.7
Minority and poor	14.7	12.5
Child, alcoholic parent	11.8	12.2
Child abuse	9.3	11.4
Migrant	3.6	6.8

Additional information follows regarding the 3 major breakdowns of the report.

Rural vs. Non-Rural

One of the most consistent features noted in the analysis of the survey data was that rural schools estimated higher percentages of children, both handicapped and non-handicapped, in the at-risk categories. For at-risk categories and all grade levels, 39 separate comparisons of rural and non-rural can be made. There was only one exception for mildly handicapped, which was substance abuse/elementary. For this, rural exceeded non-rural by only 0.1. (There also was one tie, and that was for migrant preschool children.)

There were five exceptions to the rural greater than non-rural estimates for the non-handicapped as follows: child abuse/high school; dysfunctional family/preschool; illiteracy/high school and middle school; and minority/preschool.

Certain categories showed large differences (greater than 7.0) in rural vs. non-rural. For the mildly handicapped, these were: depression/middle school and high school; poverty/elementary, middle school, high school.

The large rural over non-rural estimates for the non-handicapped were: poverty/elementary and middle school; minority/elementary (12.7); and substance abuse/elementary.

Non-handicapped vs. Handicapped

Estimates of the mildly handicapped presented the best indicator for all handicapped children. Accordingly, what follows is based on an examination of the figures in this category (as well as the non-handicapped category). There was no consistent pattern showing that the non-handicapped have higher estimates in the at-risk categories than mildly handicapped students. Estimates for at-risk mildly handicapped students exceed those for non-handicapped rural school students in 20 instances, about half of the time. In non-rural schools, mildly handicapped students exceeded non-handicapped students in 14 instances.

Differences by At-Risk Category

Table II indicates some average estimates for the various at-risk categories. The percentages given are **averaged** across all four separate grade levels. These averages (means) are unweighted. They are unweighted because they do not take into consideration the differing numbers of respondents in the grade level categories.

The at-risk categories are listed in decreasing order according to the percentages for handicapped students. These rankings would be the same for the non-handicapped students, with one exception (minority and poor; child of an alcoholic parent).

The categories for middle school and high school (dropout and sexually active) are not included in the above table. Substance abuse is based on the average of three levels (elementary, middle, and high school) since it was excluded from the preschool portion.

Most of the time, the averages for the various grade levels within an at-risk category did not vary a great deal. For some risk factors it did, such as 13% for migrant non-handicapped in the preschool compared to an overall average of 6.8%.

Limitations of the Study

Human error of respondents is always a factor in data analysis. Related to this study, there may have been different interpretations of the questionnaire not only by individual respondents, but between different categories by the same respondent. There were some varying interpretations of the at-risk categories, as evidenced both by the figures given and by written comments. In the suicide/depression/low self-esteem category, those who focused on self-esteem gave a high estimate, while those who focused on suicide gave the lowest.

As in all studies, there were a few responses that were not too credible, such as a 0% response regarding substance abuse in high school. These data were not used, however, in data analysis.

It was assumed that averaging would reveal trends and patterns in an unbiased way in spite of the above potential variations in interpretations.

SUMMARY RELATED TO ANALYSIS

In this descriptive study, rural and non-rural school personnel estimated relatively large percentages of their students to be "at risk." Although the findings of this study interpret one sample, the fact that rural children fared worse than non-rural children in 34 out of 39 statistical comparisons in the study merits concern. This analysis suggests that the social and economic strains facing rural students are at least as difficult as those facing inner-city youth.

Previous national studies have indicated higher dropout and teenage pregnancy rates in rural than non-rural areas. Some state-specific studies conducted by rural states have indicated a high rate of at-risk students. The image of rural children leading wholesome, trouble-free lives compared with youth in more crowded settings may be in need of revision.

At-risk students in migrant and Indian communities, the Mississippi Delta and Appalachian regions, lumber towns, Alaskan villages, and military communities have received media coverage in past years. It is time for policymakers to carefully consider the needs of other rural cultures and their at-risk students.

As two-thirds of America's school districts and one-third of the nation's children are rural, it is critical that society address these findings. Rural communities are extremely diverse, with family farming now composing less than 4 percent of America's economic lifestyles. Agriculture, small businesses, manufacturing, agriculturally-related industries, timber, petroleum, fishing, resorts, military, Indian reservations and subsistence economies in wilderness areas are examples of this diversity.

Many rural areas are known for their close-knit communities and family involvement in schools. Other rural cultures are known for a lack of parental involvement. The rural tenet of fiercely independent citizens who "take care of their own" and the intimacy of many rural settings can actually contribute to problems. Residents may be less willing to side with an abused or neglected child against a parent they have known for years. Citizens may be employed by such individuals or frequently see them at community functions. The guarantee of confidentiality to a person reporting abuse may be difficult to believe.

Other obstacles include the lack of social, psychological, and family counseling services in remote/impoverished rural districts. While there are some benefits for disadvantaged children (e.g., poor, emotionally disturbed, and physically or mentally handicapped students) in being able to blend into an accepting rural community, these children may not receive services that inspire or empower them to meet their full potential. Many rural communities have inadequate medical personnel, foster care, special education and sex education. Many lack instruction to prevent drug and alcohol abuse. Some rural areas are experiencing an influx of refugees and lack bilingual-bicultural staff/programs. Many rural communites have comparatively few recreational activities in an age in which TV offers the image that life should be full of exciting leisure activities. Teenage sexual activity may become a recreational pursuit.

Career training and vocational education opportunities may be limited even in areas with low rates of college attendance. The fact that many states have recently attempted to raise graduation requirements and some have linked competency tests to higher standards has proven difficult for many rural school districts.

The pride and fierce individualism characteristic of many rural communities can provide difficulties for an at-risk child. Many rural citizens would prefer to handle their own problems and will not avail themselves of social and counseling services. Lack of services can be especially serious for children with disabilities. (Some national studies have indicated higher percentages of handicapped students in rural than non-rural areas.) Inadequate prenatal care and poor nutrition in impoverished areas for children of uneducated teenage mothers also exacerbates existing problems. Many remote rural communities are isolated from state of the art services, and many service providers feel isolated from other professionals and from staff development opportunities.

Although some rural communities are thriving, conditions that can breed school failure have worsened in recent years in many rural areas. Statistics have long indicated that rural America has higher rates of poverty than non-rural America. Poverty, family instability, depression and suicide, teen pregnancy, and alcohol and drug abuse have increased as farming, timber, coal, and some fishing industries have declined. In many areas, stagnation in resource industries has been accompanied by the loss of manufacturing to foreign competition. Limited employment opportunities feed low aspirations and low levels of hope that the future could be any different. Some rural students drop out to assist in supporting their families.

In communities with longstanding social, educational, and economic problems, some develop low aspirations regarding education, graduation, and employment. Education may not be highly valued. Sexual activity, teenage parenting, drug and alcohol use, delinquency, and dropping out of school become commonplace in such communities. Low self-esteem is accepted and becomes pervasive. Students have wider ranges of "deviancy" before their behavior attracts the attention of the school or community.

These conditions have occured at a time when America has experienced an explosion of social problems such as increases in latchkey children, drug and alcohol abuse, crime, homeless individuals, sexually transmitted diseases, and the breakup of the traditional American family. It is simply not acceptable that we, as a society, assume that highways, ferries, and small planes cannot access rural communities. "Crack" babies and the HIV virus have found their way into rural America. Outmigration of citizens from urban to rural areas has frequently resulted in the transfer of urban problems, as well as "culture shock".

As most news coverage emanates from urban areas and crime generated by the greater concentrations of individuals in the cities demands media attention, rural areas typically receive inadequate media coverage regarding their problems. Concomitantly, they usually receive inadequate attention by the federal and state governments. Rural areas typically receive fewer federal and state funds than do urban and suburban areas.

Most at-risk students exhibit more than one of the at-risk characteristics indicated on page one of this report. Typically, low self-esteem and/or the existence of a dysfunctional family overlay other characteristics. For example, studies have consistently linked delinquents, child abusers, and victims of abuse, with low self-esteem and/or dysfunctional families. Studies have also indicated that students with disabilities are at risk (Education of the

Handicapped, Sept 27, 1989). This publication also reported that handicapped students drop out of school at 1 1/2 times the rate of non-handicapped students.

At-risk students and those classified as special education students are separated in state and federal agencies. For example, students served by programs under the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981 are separated from students labeled as special education students. Many of the students exhibit both characteristics, and this false separation inhibits collaborative problem solving and service delivery. This is particularly detrimental as most students who exhibit one at-risk condition exhibit at least one other. Robert Davila, Assistant Secretary of the U.S. Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS), in a September interview, stated that students with disabilities are at-risk students. (Education of the Handicapped, September 27, 1989.)

THE IMPORTANCE OF SELF-ESTEEM

National studies have repeatedly indicated that at-risk students typically have low self-esteem and that self-esteem is related to academic grades, school attendance, and social skills. An additional study conducted under the auspices of the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium (NRSSC), of rural education researchers and practitioners, found 75% agreement that working with low self-esteem and other emotional problems should be the number one national priority concerning assisting at-risk students (Bull, et. al., 1990). A 1989 at-risk students pilot project conducted by the NRSSC determined successful practices of enhancing the self-esteem of at-risk students so that they could succeed in school and the community. These results were shared at the recent "National Conference Concerning the Prevention of Rural School Dropouts," March 18-23 in Tucson, Arizona. (Conference Proceedings, 1990.)

There is a clear link between high self-esteem and positive academic grades, school attendance, and social skills. Most human behavior is emotionally based, and individuals with serious emotional problems are unable to learn effectively. Poor self-esteem is linked to at-risk conditions including teen pregnancy, delinquency, depression, substance abuse, dysfunctional families, and child abuse.

The highest percentage of school dropouts are pregnant teenagers, and studies have indicated that most teen mothers relate that their behavior is related to low self-esteem and the desire to create "someone who will finally love me." Teenagers who value themselves and feel a sense of personal power value their future and do not endanger it by becoming pregnant, engaging in drug or alcohol abuse, delinquency, or unsafe sexual practices.

The Final Report of the California Task Force to Promote Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility (1990) stated that self-esteem can be a social vaccine against the lures of crime, violence, substance abuse, teen pregnancy, child abuse, welfare dependency, and educational failure.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- Federal and state governments tend to recognize and deal with urban problems. The federal and state governments must recognize the extent to which rural students are at risk. Intra and interagency efforts should address collaborative problem solution. Federal and state initiatives should be analyzed regarding their ability to address the needs of at-risk students. Federal and state funding for rural at-risk should be equitable to funding in non-rural areas. States should assess the preservice training of teachers and other personnel concerned with at-risk students.

- At the local level, collaboration should involve state and local education agencies, university training programs, social agencies (education, foster care, counseling, job training, juvenile incarceration, and others). Existing rural outreach systems such as cooperative extension and public health agencies, civic groups, parents, and volunteer organizations should also be involved in program planning and implementation.

- The link between high self-esteem and positive academic grades, school attendance, and social skills should be clearly recognized. The link between poor self-esteem and at-risk conditions (e.g., teen pregnancy, delinquency, depression, substance abuse, dysfunctional families, etc.) should also be recognized.

- While at-risk students need and deserve academic tutoring, mentor programs, career guidance, counseling and vocational education, health and social services, and other support systems, the most basic ingredient to changing the serious problems of at-risk students, their families, and communities can be best affected by consistently enhancing self-esteem. Parents, teachers, other service providers, and community members need to learn skills that enable students in pain to identify and express their feelings, validate themselves, and gain a sense of self worth and personal power. Parents, teachers, and other service providers also need to learn to acknowledge their feelings and validate their point of view.

  The basic key to helping at-risk students lies in educating parents, teachers, and other service providers to communicate better with children and become attuned to their problems before they become crises.

- Holistic program approaches should be planned that address the emotional, academic, physical, and social needs of at-risk students and involve families in program planning and implementation. The use of nontraditional methods of instruction to assist students in pain to address emotional issues should be used. For example, with drama, students can act out their feelings. They can also experience for the first time how a self-confident person feels/acts. The use of physical activities such as tai chi, karate, or yoga can put students in touch with their bodies. This has been particularly effective for students who have been sexually/physically abused and have lost body awareness. Movement, dance, art, and music therapies have proven to be effective.

- Early identification of at-risk conditions, in ways that protect student confidentiality, should be emphasized. Early intervention should include adequate prenatal care as well as preschool programs. Attention to nutritional needs and nutritional education should be ongoing.

- Schools should structure ongoing student support systems such as peer, teacher, and administrative buddy systems and school building case management teams.

- Collaboration between school building personnel and social agencies involved with the child should occur in ways that protect student confidentiality. Partnerships with other community resources including social agencies, businesses, the justice system, employment trainers, JTPA, and rural outreach systems such as cooperative extension and public health systems should occur on an as-needed basis.

- Program evaluations should be ongoing (formative) and longitudinal.

- Academic and social development programs should be structured to ensure that students will experience success when possible, to help them realize that this is possible for them. Attempts should be made for this to become self-perpetuating.

- Information should be gathered and nationally disseminated regarding effective programs for at-risk students and their families. Effective training approaches for school personnel, related staff, and parents should also be disseminated.

- Schools and other service agencies should consider the need to train all personnel regarding techniques of working with at-risk students. Some of the techniques that work well with low self-esteem students can be used to enhance the self-esteem of "normal" students. This will aid our entire society. All teachers will have some students who exhibit at-risk conditions, and many at-risk students are not readily identified. Training teachers to work with at-risk students will teach them how to individualize their responses to students, within large and small group settings.

- Staff inservice and university preservice training should focus on approaches of identifying and working with at-risk students. Parents, foster care, and community agency personnel should also learn techniques of effectively listening to students and assisting them in feeling their feelings.

- Inservice and preservice time should emphasize processes of enhancing student self-esteem and include methods of developing interdisciplinary assessment and intervention teams. Teachers and other service personnel should be trained to work with families, community agencies, and with students regarding the emotional needs of at-risk students. Eash person attending inservice should be encouraged to take their knowledge back to other personnel in the school and to parents.

- The first priority must be the immediate welfare of the student. Teachers, other service personnel, school board members, administrators, and others must understand that the worst thing they can do is to ignore a student's problem.

- Preservice and inservice instruction should address:
    - problem recognition
    - methods of identifying at-risk students (as early as possible, and with confidentiality)
    - development of relevant school policies (with community participation)
    - resources available for prevention and treatment
    - methods to develop student and parent self-esteem as a prevention and intervention mode
    - academic assistance programs and techniques
    - interdisciplinary, holistic intervention approaches

- At-risk student programs should include:
    - academic services including mentoring and tutoring
    - vocational education
    - counseling
    - transition programs
    - family involvement
    - community-business-school-social agency partnerships
    - community mental health services
    - comprehensive health services
    - sex education
    - drug and alcohol abuse education

  - nutrition and nutritional education
  - ongoing peer and teacher support systems
  - career counseling
  - creative arts
  - physical education

- Goals for student development should include the enhancement of the following areas:
  - academic abilities
  - self-esteem
  - ability to self-nurture
  - sense of identity
  - internal motivation
  - sense of responsibility for individual's actions
  - control over individual's own life
  - ability to find appropriate external support systems and other resources
  - physical abilities
  - career/vocational goals

  In addition, student programming should cover the following aspects of healthy living.
  - self acceptance and change
  - discovering individual goals
  - being responsible for one's own behavior
  - determining one's choices
  - acknowledging how individuals allow their thoughts to control them
  - the benefits of cooperation vs. the need to be "right"
  - dealing with feelings:
    - identifying them
    - their importance regarding controlling one's life
    - effectively dealing with them
    - accepting things one doesn't like and changing what one can
  - using effective communication skills:
    - to say what is needed/wanted
    - to deal with angry people
    - to avoid manipulating others or being manipulated when one is angry, hurt, or sad
  - an awareness that individuals typically get what they expect (regarding achievements, rewards, joy, and disappointments)
  - developing positive relationships with peers, parents, authority figures, and those of the opposite sex

- School personnel must communicate high expectations and provide a comprehensive academic and social skills curriculum, indicating to students that what they learn is relevant to their lives. Teachers must provide ongoing evaluation and start students off with successful experiences. Students should be challenged to apply skills in a range of ways and demand that students take responsibility for their own learning.

- Teachers and other service providers must learn to deal with the more covert/difficult situations such as knowing when students' actions are affected by alcohol or drug use. This might include students whose long-term use of drugs or alcohol has left them without motivation for learning, or students who are so depressed that they are simply biding time until the school drops them, they quit school, or they attempt suicide. Symptoms such as high absenteeism, frequent tardiness, amotivational syndrome, manipulative behavior, mood swings, and denial must be dealt with even though they are difficult. To follow a student's lead and buy into the denial of students' parents or other teachers is to condone this behavior and allow it to continue to the detriment of the student and the general school community.

- An effective student assistance program should be established in which teachers and related professionals become part of an assessment team that looks at the behavior of students who are having difficulty in school. Health, absenteeism, change in performance, and classroom conduct are among the behaviors that should be evaluated. School personnel must be trained and supported regarding recognizing and reporting child abuse.

- Assessment processes should be completed by the student's teachers, counselor, nurse, other related services personnel, administrator, and parents (when possible). This gives the assessment team a tool with which to evaluate the student. This information will more readily enable the school to address with parents the issues involved in the at-risk situation. This type of confrontation or intervention will be helpful in breaking through both parent and student denial.

- It is essential that the community, including parents, social agencies, businesses, and civic and volunteer organizations, be involved. Resources are simply too scarce to attempt to deal with problems in isolation. All community resources are required to handle social problems such as those involved with at-risk conditions. It is important that all techniques involving community elements preserve student confidentiality. As vocational education is essential in a dropout prevention program, school-business-community partherships are imperative.

  Mentoring can be a volunteer program involving business people, college and high school students and community members as role models who help students to begin to envision their own futures and who provide much-needed caring and support.

  The entire community - businesses, the justice system, job training/employment agencies, the medical profession, child welfare agencies, police, churches, media, civic groups, and legislators - must play a part.

- Parents are an essential resource in program planning and implementation. They can approach other parents, community groups, and school employees. Research has indicated that students whose parents are involved in their child's education achieve at a higher level than those whose parents are not involved. Siblings can often reach students who will not listen to anyone else. In some cases, families will be in denial (e.g., alcoholism, abuse, or attempted suicide). In such cases, the school and community must help parents understand that denial is, in essence, condoning behavior and allowing it to continue to the detriment of the student. It is especially critical to involve parents of students in dysfunctional family situations if at all possible. Frequently, rural family members will listen to their peers (e.g., neighbors, cooperative extension workers, or extended family members) more easily than they will to school personnel. Thus, all natural outreach agencies or unique rural resources should be involved (e.g., mail carriers, grange organizations, 4-H clubs, natural community communicators, cooperative extension, public health workers, etc).

- Teachers, other service providers, and parents must understand that intervention regarding a "primary" disability can occur via addressing the "secondary" disability, the emotional overlay. There must be an understanding that students with serious emotional difficulties are generally unable to focus on learning.

- Communities should plan alternate entertainment experiences for students, especially in areas with high rates of adult alcoholism and heavy teenage drinking. Local citizens should be involved in program planning regarding sex education and other potentially controversial issues, so that program implementation is well received. Local citizens should also be encouraged to initiate the development or change of policies related to the development of at-risk students. This will require increased community awareness of social problems and expectations for student performance within that community.

- It is essential that the entire community be educated regarding all of the factors in at-risk situations. This will insure that many unfortunate situations will not occur and will help in ameliorating current negative conditions. Community education might occur via town meetings, interagency presentations, and involvement with social and fraternal organizations. In small rural communities, presentations may occur at local Welcome Wagon, Garden Club, or 4-H meetings, or county fairs. Advanced technologies can be used such as satellite training or informational programs regarding recognizing and dealing with factors such as child abuse.

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

For further information regarding this study or effective practices of working with at-risk students, contact: Dr. Doris Helge, Director, National Rural Development Institute, Woodring College of Education, Western Washington University, Bellingham, Washington 98225 or telephone (206) 676-3576.

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APPENDIX A

Appendix A provides statistical tables regarding comparisons of at-risk categories. The reader is encouraged to compare rural, urban, and suburban categories; preschool, elementary, middle, and high school grade levels, and handicapped vs. non-handicapped student data.

NON-RURAL = urban and suburban
NON = non-handicapped
MLD = mildly handicapped
MOD = moderately handicapped
SEV = severely handicapped
HDCP = average of three above levels of handicapped

NATIONAL 312 entries

Preschool	Non	Mld	Mod	Sev	Hdcp
Depression	13.6	14.4	15.9	12.6	14.0
Child abuse	12.0	11.5	9.3	10.7	10.6
Poverty	13.9	22.3	22.4	19.2	21.6
Chld of Alcoholic	18.1	14.4	14.1	12.1	13.3
Dysfunctional fam	15.2	23.2	20.1	18.1	20.6
Migrant	13.0	4.4	3.2	2.5	3.3
Minority & Poor	6.7	15.2	12.3	11.5	13.3
Elementary school					
Substance Abuse	6.8	5.3	4.5	3.0	4.2
Depression	11.2	14.4	11.6	8.7	11.1
Poverty	21.2	20.6	18.6	16.2	18.2
Child abuse	12.1	11.5	10.9	9.4	10.9
Chld of Alcoholic	14.9	13.8	12.4	11.7	12.6
Dysfunctional fam	20.3	19.8	19.1	16.6	18.2
Migrant	5.6	3.5	3.1	7.1	4.3
Minority & Poor	20.2	12.6	12.3	11.7	12.0
Middle school					
Involved w/ Crime	6.3	5.5	4.2	1.8	3.8
Substance Abuse	10.4	8.5	5.8	2.5	5.7
Depression	14.3	15.9	12.5	8.1	11.7
Child Abuse	11.9	11.7	10.7	9.2	10.4
Poverty	19.7	19.1	17.9	16.4	17.8
Chld of Alcoholic	15.0	14.0	12.4	19.0	15.3
Dysfunctional fam	20.2	19.8	18.4	15.3	17.8
Illiteracy	6.4	10.4	15.1	24.0	16.5
Migrant	4.2	3.2	3.6	2.9	3.0
School Dropout	4.1	4.1	3.7	1.8	3.2
Sexually active	10.8	9.2	6.5	3.3	4.6
Minority & Poor	7.6	15.3	14.6	12.9	12.0

High school	Non	Mld	Mod	Sev	Hdcp
Involved w/ Crime	8.5	8.1	5.8	1.9	5.1
Substance Abuse	18.1	15.4	10.9	4.2	9.8
Depression	15.5	17.1	14.9	8.9	13.8
Child Abuse	12.7	12.3	11.7	7.9	10.5
Poverty	20.3	20.7	20.2	16.8	18.9
Chld of Alcoholic	15.9	16.0	13.9	11.7	13.5
Dysfunctional fam	21.5	21.7	21.4	17.5	19.8
Illiteracy	6.9	11.6	18.6	27.2	19.4
Migrant	4.3	3.1	3.2	2.6	3.0
School Dropout	9.7	11.3	9.2	5.6	9.1
Sexually active	24.2	22.6	15.6	6.4	15.5
Minority & Poor	15.6	15.6	14.4	13.1	14.7

Preschool	RURAL		185 entries			URBAN		71 entries		
	Non	Mld	Mod	Sev	Hdcp	Non	Mld	Mod	Sev	Hdcp
Depression	13.9	15.1	18.5	13.6	14.9	16.9	14.2	13.0	12.4	13.4
Child abuse	12.7	12.1	9.6	11.2	10.9	11.9	11.0	9.7	10.1	10.7
Poverty	15.6	24.4	25.1	20.5	23.6	11.7	23.6	22.6	20.5	22.2
Chld of Alcoholic	18.9	15.5	15.3	12.4	14.0	20.1	14.2	14.4	12.4	13.6
Dysfunctional fam	15.1	25.9	21.6	19.0	22.1	16.9	20.9	18.7	17.3	18.9
Migrant	13.6	4.4	2.7	2.4	3.2	13.4	4.9	3.9	3.2	4.1
Minority & Poor	6.3	16.5	14.3	12.0	13.9	9.3	19.2	18.7	17.0	18.7
Elementary school										
Substance Abuse	7.0	5.3	4.2	2.7	3.9	8.5	6.7	6.2	2.7	5.2
Depression	12.3	16.9	13.0	9.0	11.8	10.0	9.5	10.7	10.4	10.6
Poverty	24.4	23.4	21.0	18.2	20.5	20.1	21.0	18.8	15.3	18.1
Child abuse	12.5	12.2	11.6	10.0	11.6	12.9	11.3	11.2	9.8	10.9
Chld of Alcoholic	16.3	14.9	12.8	12.3	13.4	14.1	13.7	13.5	11.4	13.0
Dysfunctional fam	22.4	21.5	20.6	18.2	19.7	18.3	18.0	17.5	13.5	16.2
Migrant	6.5	3.6	3.0	10.0	5.1	5.1	3.4	3.6	2.9	3.4
Minority & Poor	25.4	13.7	13.0	12.7	12.8	17.5	15.6	16.0	14.7	15.7
Middle school										
Involved w/ Crime	6.7	6.2	4.5	2.2	4.4	6.9	5.1	3.8	1.4	3.3
Substance Abuse	10.6	9.3	5.8	2.6	6.0	11.5	7.7	6.3	2.1	5.7
Depression	15.9	19.2	14.8	9.3	13.6	13.8	12.4	8.4	5.7	8.3
Child Abuse	12.5	13.6	12.4	10.6	11.6	13.3	10.4	8.7	7.9	9.5
Poverty	22.8	22.7	20.8	19.0	20.5	19.7	17.6	16.4	15.0	16.7
Chld of Alcoholic	16.6	15.9	13.7	25.1	18.0	13.4	12.2	10.4	10.7	11.7
Dysfunctional fam	22.8	22.0	19.9	16.3	18.8	18.5	18.2	17.1	14.2	16.7
Illiteracy	6.3	12.4	17.1	28.6	19.5	9.2	9.7	14.6	21.2	15.1
Migrant	5.1	4.0	4.2	3.2	3.5	4.0	2.4	3.2	2.6	2.7
School Dropout	4.1	4.6	4.2	2.1	3.6	5.7	3.9	3.7	1.5	2.9
Sexually active	11.2	11.2	8.0	4.4	6.2	13.2	7.3	5.5	2.4	5.1
Minority & Poor	9.0	17.9	18.0	15.4	14.9	5.8	15.3	14.1	12.7	10.8
High school										
Involved w/ Crime	9.4	8.9	5.9	2.4	5.9	8.9	7.9	6.1	1.5	4.6
Substance Abuse	17.7	15.5	10.7	4.7	10.2	20.1	15.2	11.5	1.9	8.4
Depression	17.1	20.1	17.9	11.1	16.5	13.8	12.4	8.9	4.2	8.1
Child Abuse	11.9	13.6	13.0	8.7	11.7	17.8	10.8	10.1	5.7	8.6
Poverty	22.7	24.4	23.2	19.8	22.3	20.2	18.8	17.6	13.1	15.9
Chld of Alcoholic	17.4	16.9	14.3	12.7	14.3	14.2	15.2	13.4	9.2	12.4
Dysfunctional fam	23.4	23.8	24.1	19.7	21.7	19.0	19.6	17.5	13.0	17.0
Illiteracy	6.6	13.3	20.7	33.3	23.6	9.9	12.0	16.7	19.3	15.2
Migrant	4.8	3.5	3.3	2.5	3.2	4.1	2.7	2.6	2.3	2.6
School Dropout	10.3	12.9	10.3	5.8	10.2	9.1	10.2	7.8	5.6	8.1
Sexually active	25.7	26.7	17.8	5.8	18.0	22.5	15.3	10.9	3.4	10.5
Minority & Poor	18.0	18.4	16.5	7.3	17.3	15.0	15.1	14.5	11.2	13.8

Preschool	SUBURBAN		56 entries			NON-RURAL			127 entries	
	Non	Mld	Mod	Sev	Hdcp	Non	Mld	Mod	Sev	Hdcp
Depression	10.3	12.3	12.3	9.5	11.7	13.6	13.3	12.7	11.0	12.6
Child abuse	9.6	10.2	7.8	9.9	9.3	10.8	10.6	8.8	10.0	10.1
Poverty	10.7	12.4	12.8	12.3	13.0	11.3	18.8	18.2	17.0	18.4
Chld of Alcohol	13.4	11.4	10.2	10.7	10.8	17.0	12.8	12.4	11.6	12.2
Dysfunctional f	13.8	17.0	17.2	16.0	17.4	15.4	19.1	17.9	16.7	18.2
Migrant	10.3	3.7	3.7	2.3	2.5	12.0	4.4	3.8	2.8	3.4
Minority & Poor	5.1	6.5	5.4	3.7	5.0	7.2	13.2	12.5	10.6	12.4
Elementary scho										
Substance Abuse	4.5	3.7	2.9	4.8	3.7	6.6	5.4	4.8	3.6	4.6
Depression	8.5	12.4	7.8	6.3	9.0	9.3	10.6	9.4	8.5	9.9
Poverty	10.8	9.7	8.9	9.7	9.4	16.0	16.2	14.6	13.1	14.5
Child abuse	9.7	9.6	8.5	7.3	8.7	11.5	10.5	10.0	8.7	9.9
Chld of Alcohol	11.1	10.1	8.9	9.2	9.2	12.7	12.1	11.5	10.5	11.4
Dysfunctional f	15.7	15.9	15.6	15.4	16.0	17.1	17.1	16.7	14.3	16.1
Migrant	2.9	3.1	2.7	2.5	2.7	4.1	3.3	3.2	2.7	3.1
Minority & Poor	6.7	4.8	5.1	4.3	4.5	12.7	10.7	11.1	10.1	10.8
Middle school										
Involved w/ Cri	4.1	3.8	3.2	0.9	2.7	5.6	4.6	3.6	1.2	3.1
Substance Abuse	8.5	7.3	4.8	2.5	4.6	10.1	7.5	5.6	2.3	5.3
Depression	9.9	10.1	10.2	7.3	10.1	12.0	11.4	9.3	6.5	9.2
Child Abuse	8.5	7.4	7.5	6.8	7.8	11.1	9.1	8.2	7.4	8.8
Poverty	10.0	9.8	9.8	9.5	10.1	15.4	14.3	13.7	12.7	13.9
Chld of Alcohol	12.1	10.8	11.2	11.3	11.6	12.8	11.6	10.8	11.0	11.7
Dysfunctional f	14.4	15.5	15.6	13.8	16.1	16.6	17.0	16.5	14.0	16.4
Illiteracy	3.6	5.3	9.4	13.5	9.4	6.6	7.7	12.2	17.6	12.5
Migrant	1.5	14.9	2.4	2.1	2.0	2.9	2.0	2.8	2.3	2.4
School Dropout	2.2	2.7	2.2	1.3	2.3	4.2	3.4	3.1	1.4	2.7
Sexually active	6.4	6.2	3.3	0.9	1.3	10.2	6.9	4.6	1.8	1.3
Minority & Poor	4.2	7.0	5.7	5.9	6.3	5.2	11.7	10.5	9.7	8.2
High school										
Involved w/ Cri	5.6	5.0	4.1	0.9	3.0	5.6	6.8	5.3	1.3	4.0
Substance Abuse	17.1	15.4	10.5	5.9	10.1	10.1	15.3	11.1	3.4	9.1
Depression	12.0	12.4	11.6	7.5	11.0	12.0	12.4	10.0	5.5	9.3
Child Abuse	9.1	9.7	8.9	7.9	9.0	14.1	10.4	9.6	6.6	8.7
Poverty	10.7	10.2	10.9	11.7	11.3	16.4	15.3	14.9	12.5	14.0
Chld of Alcohol	12.4	13.7	12.4	11.6	12.3	13.5	14.6	2.9	10.2	12.3
Dysfunctional f	17.4	16.9	16.6	16.4	16.9	18.3	18.5	7.4	14.4	17.0
Illiteracy	3.1	4.2	12.1	15.7	10.2	7.4	9.0	12.1	17.8	13.2
Migrant	2.2	2.2	3.3	3.0	2.8	3.4	2.5	2.9	2.6	2.7
School Dropout	7.8	4.1	6.8	4.8	6.5	8.6	8.9	7.5	5.2	7.4
Sexually active	20.9	18.2	13.7	7.1	13.4	21.8	16.5	12.1	5.0	11.7
Minority & Poor	7.2	5.5	6.7	6.5	6.5	11.9	11.2	11.4	9.4	11.0

Involved w/ Crime - Middle school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	6.2	5.1	3.8	4.6
H'd Mod	4.5	3.8	3.2	3.6
H'd Sev	2.2	1.4	0.9	1.2
Non H'd	6.7	6.9	4.1	5.6

Involved w/ Crime - High school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	8.9	7.9	5.0	6.8
H'd Mod	5.9	6.1	4.1	5.3
H'd Sev	2.4	1.5	0.9	1.3
Non H'd	9.4	8.9	5.6	5.6

Substance Abuse - Elementary

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	5.3	6.7	3.7	5.4
H'd Mod	4.2	6.2	2.9	4.8
H'd Sev	2.7	2.7	4.8	3.6
Non H'd	7.0	8.5	4.5	6.6

Substance Abuse - Middle school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	9.3	7.7	7.3	7.5
H'd Mod	5.8	6.3	4.8	5.6
H'd Sev	2.6	2.1	2.5	2.3
Non H'd	10.6	11.5	8.5	10.1

Substance Abuse - High school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.3
H'd Mod	10.7	11.5	10.5	11.1
H'd Sev	4.7	1.9	5.9	3.4
Non H'd	17.7	20.1	17.1	10.1

Child Abuse - Preschool

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	12.1	11.0	10.2	10.6
H'd Mod	9.6	9.7	7.8	8.8
H'd Sev	11.2	10.1	9.9	10.0
Non H'd	12.7	11.9	9.6	10.8

Child Abuse - Elementary

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	12.2	11.3	9.6	10.5
H'd Mod	11.6	11.2	8.5	10.0
H'd Sev	10.0	9.8	7.3	8.7
Non H'd	12.5	12.9	9.7	11.5

Child Abuse - Middle school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	13.6	10.4	7.4	9.1
H'd Mod	12.4	8.7	7.5	8.2
H'd Sev	10.6	7.9	6.8	7.4
Non H'd	12.5	13.3	8.5	11.1

Child Abuse - High school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	13.6	10.8	9.7	10.4
H'd Mod	13.0	10.1	8.9	9.6
H'd Sev	8.7	5.7	7.9	6.6
Non H'd	11.9	17.8	9.1	14.1

Child of Alcoholic- Preschool

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	15.5	14.2	11.4	12.8
H'd Mod	15.3	14.4	10.2	12.4
H'd Sev	12.4	12.4	10.7	11.6
Non H'd	18.9	20.1	13.4	17.0

Child of Alcoholic - Elementary

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	14.9	13.7	10.1	12.1
H'd Mod	12.8	13.5	8.9	11.5
H'd Sev	12.3	11.4	9.2	10.5
Non H'd	16.3	14.1	11.1	12.7

Child of Alcoholic - Middle schoo

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	15.9	12.2	10.8	11.6
H'd Mod	13.7	10.4	11.2	10.8
H'd Sev	25.1	10.7	11.3	11.0
Non H'd	16.6	13.4	12.1	12.8

Child of Alcoholic - High school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	16.9	15.2	13.7	14.6
H'd Mod	14.3	13.4	12.4	2.9
H'd Sev	12.7	9.2	11.6	10.2
Non H'd	17.4	14.2	12.4	13.5

Depression - Preschool

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	15.1	14.2	12.3	13.3
H'd Mod	18.5	13.0	12.3	12.7
H'd Sev	13.6	12.4	9.5	11.0
Non H'd	13.9	16.9	10.3	13.6

Depression - Elementary

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	16.9	9.5	12.4	10.8
H'd Mod	13.0	10.7	7.8	9.4
H'd Sev	9.0	10.4	6.3	8.5
Non H'd	12.3	10.0	8.5	9.3

Depression - Middle school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	19.2	12.4	10.1	11.4
H'd Mod	14.8	8.4	10.2	9.3
H'd Sev	9.3	5.7	7.3	6.5
Non H'd	15.9	13.8	9.9	12.0

Depression - High school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	20.1	12.4	12.4	12.4
H'd Mod	17.9	8.9	11.6	10.0
H'd Sev	11.1	4.2	7.5	5.5
Non H'd	17.1	13.8	12.0	12.0

Poverty - Preschool

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	24.4	23.6	12.4	18.8
H'd Mod	25.1	22.6	12.8	18.2
H'd Sev	20.5	20.5	12.3	17.0
Non H'd	15.6	11.7	10.7	11.3

Poverty - Elementary

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	23.4	21.0	9.7	16.2
H'd Mod	21.0	18.8	8.9	14.6
H'd Sev	18.2	15.3	9.7	13.1
Non H'd	24.4	20.1	10.8	16.0

Poverty - Middle school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	22.7	17.6	9.8	14.3
H'd Mod	20.8	16.4	9.8	13.7
H'd Sev	19.0	15.0	9.5	12.7
Non H'd	22.8	19.7	10.0	15.4

Poverty - High school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	24.4	18.8	10.2	15.3
H'd Mod	23.2	17.6	10.9	14.9
H'd Sev	19.8	13.1	11.7	12.5
Non H'd	22.7	20.2	10.7	16.4

Migrant - Preschool

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	4.4	4.9	3.7	4.4
H'd Mod	2.7	3.9	3.7	3.8
H'd Sev	2.4	3.2	2.3	2.8
Non H'd	13.6	13.4	10.3	12.0

Migrant - Elementary

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	3.6	3.4	3.1	3.3
H'd Mod	3.0	3.6	2.7	3.2
H'd Sev	10.0	2.9	2.5	2.7
Non H'd	6.5	5.1	2.9	4.1

Migrant - Middle school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	4.0	2.4	14.9	2.0
H'd Mod	4.2	3.2	2.4	2.8
H'd Sev	3.2	2.6	2.1	2.3
Non H'd	5.1	4.0	1.5	2.9

Migrant - high school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	3.5	2.7	2.2	2.5
H'd Mod	3.3	2.6	3.3	2.9
H'd Sev	2.5	2.3	3.0	2.6
Non H'd	4.8	4.1	2.2	3.4

Dysfunctional Fam - Preschool

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	25.9	20.9	17.0	19.1
H'd Mod	21.6	18.7	17.2	17.9
H'd Sev	19.0	17.3	16.0	16.7
Non H'd	15.1	16.9	13.8	15.4

Dysfunctional Fam - Elementary

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	21.5	18.0	15.9	17.1
H'd Mod	20.6	17.5	15.6	16.7
H'd Sev	18.2	13.5	15.4	14.3
Non H'd	22.4	18.3	15.7	17.1

Dysfunctional Fam - Middle school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	22.0	18.2	15.5	17.0
H'd Mod	19.9	17.1	15.6	16.5
H'd Sev	16.3	14.2	13.8	14.0
Non H'd	22.8	18.5	14.4	16.6

Dysfunctional Fam - high school

School Dropout - Middle School

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	4.6	3.9	2.7	3.4
H'd Mod	4.2	3.7	2.2	3.1
H'd Sev	2.1	1.5	1.3	1.4
Non H'd	4.1	5.7	2.2	4.2

School Dropout - High School

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	12.9	10.2	4.1	8.9
H'd Mod	10.3	7.8	6.8	7.5
H'd Sev	5.8	5.6	4.8	5.2
Non H'd	10.3	9.1	7.8	8.6

Minority & Poor - Preschool

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	16.5	19.2	6.5	13.2
H'd Mod	14.3	18.7	5.4	12.5
H'd Sev	12.0	17.0	3.7	10.6
Non H'd	6.3	9.3	5.1	7.2

Minority & Poor - Elementary

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	13.7	15.6	4.8	10.7
H'd Mod	13.0	16.0	5.1	11.1
H'd Sev	12.7	14.7	4.3	10.1
Non H'd	25.4	17.5	6.7	12.7

Minority & Poor - Middle school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	17.9	15.3	7.0	11.7
H'd Mod	18.0	14.1	5.7	10.5
H'd Sev	15.4	12.7	5.9	9.7
Non H'd	9.0	5.8	4.2	5.2

Minority & Poor - high school

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	18.4	15.1	5.5	11.2
H'd Mod	16.5	14.5	6.7	11.4
H'd Sev	7.3	11.2	6.5	9.4
Non H'd	18.0	15.0	7.2	11.9

Sexually active - Middle School

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	11.2	7.3	6.2	6.9
H'd Mod	8.0	5.5	3.3	4.6
H'd Sev	4.4	2.4	0.9	1.8
Non H'd	11.2	13.2	6.4	10.2

Sexually active - High School

	Rural	Urban	Sub	NonR
H'd Mild	26.7	15.3	18.2	16.5
H'd Mod	17.8	10.9	13.7	12.1
H'd Sev	5.8	3.4	7.1	5.0
Non H'd	25.7	22.5	20.9	21.8

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Bruce A. Miller
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

Bruce A. Miller
Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory
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Portland, OR 97204

A REVIEW OF THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH ON MULTIGRADE INSTRUCTION*

The multigrade classroom has a long history in the United States dating back to the 1800s. It wasn't until the industrial revolution that educators began to think of instruction in terms of the graded classroom. Currently, most educators view school organization around the concept of gradedness. However, the multigraded classroom remains, to this day, an integral part of both rural and metropolitan education. As Miller (1990) has pointed out, the multigrade classroom became a driving force during the 1970s movement in open education and continues to this day in many rural schools. In addition, the 21 quantitative studies reviewed by Miller indicated that students in multigrade classrooms performed academically as well as students from single-grade classrooms. In terms of affective measures, however, multigrade students out-performed their single-grade counterparts at a statistically significant level. Clearly, multigrade classroom instruction is a viable alternative to single-grade organization.

The review of qualitative literature that follows has been divided into two sections. The first section provides an overview of the problems and needs of rural school teachers in multigrade classrooms. Primarily based on surveys and interviews, this literature describes how teachers and administrators view the job demands of the multigrade classroom. The second section reviews studies and teacher reports describing how multigrade instruction is carried out in the multigrade classroom.

Establishing the Needs of the Multigrade Teacher

Imagine you have recently graduated from a university in a rural state. You would like to live and work in the small city where the university is located, but so would nearly every other graduate. You apply to the local school district, but are told that there is a long waiting list. Feeling anxious about a job for the fall, you also apply to many of the small rural schools around the state. It is in one of these schools where you eventually find a teaching job.

During your job interview with the local school board and superintendent, you are told you will teach the second grade. Moreover, when you report to work, your assignment has slightly changed and you find yourself responsible for a combination classroom of second and third graders. The principal apologizes for the change, but mentions that enrollment has dropped for the third grade, thus necessitating a combined class. You are also told that you will only have an additional eight students, bringing the enrollment to thirty-two. Some extra aide help is hinted at.

While attending the university, you learned that a combined classroom was a distinct possibility in a rural school. However, the majority of your classes focused on instructional strategies for single-grade classes. When you student taught, you also taught in a single-grade classroom. Fortunately, you did have several methods courses and practicum experiences in grouping students for reading and math. As you face the task of preparing for the opening day of school, you decide to use what you know about grouping. A roster of students is reviewed as well as the previous year's cumulative folders. Unfortunately, this information is not very helpful.

Based on what test results you could locate, you discover there is an achievement span of five grades in reading and four grades in math. You decide to combine several levels in order to reduce the number of groups. Next, you begin planning for language arts, social studies and science. Should you teach separate groups by grade level for each subject? What happens if some second graders get third grade science and social studies? Will they have to repeat this content in third grade? And what about art, physical education and spelling? By this time, your anxiety has risen and you decide to take a break and ask another teacher for some help. Maybe ask the principal. You think to yourself, "Maybe I should just keep these concerns to myself. After all, I am a certified teacher trained to teach all K through 8 grades . . . what if the students are poorly behaved . . . don't like me . . . what if . . . ?"

This fictitious teacher's thoughts and feelings are not too dissimilar from what many teachers, new or experienced, might feel as they approach the realities of teaching a multigrade classroom. As anyone who has taught knows, the greater the student diversity in the classroom (multiple achievement levels, developmental differences, differences in socio-economic status, etc.), the more one needs to plan and organize if individual student needs are to be met.

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Bandy (1980) conducted a study of the characteristics and needs of country school teachers in British Columbia, Canada. A random, stratified sample of 50 principals and 500 teachers was surveyed. This was followed by open-ended interviews with 32 teachers drawn from a representative sample of 15 small rural schools. Interview data were then cross checked with findings from the questionnaires.

Principal comments indicated that the most important factor to successful multigrade instruction was the teacher's ability to plan and organize. Most principals felt that the multigrade classroom was no problem to their teachers. Interestingly, over 90 percent of the teachers surveyed said they had multigrade classroom experience which suggests a highly skilled cadre of capable multigrade teachers. Many principals also mentioned that there were advantages to multigrade classes such as individualized instruction, tutorials by older students, and a greater opportunity for teachers to be innovative. However, principals said that the extra time needed in preparation and planning lessons was a definite disadvantage.

Teachers were asked to compare single and multigrade classrooms on a range of items. For example, they were asked to indicate whether it was "easier" or "more difficult" to motivate students in a multigrade classroom. Over half said it was more difficult. Teachers also believed that "assisting individual children" and "planning" were more difficult in the multigrade classroom. However, maintaining classroom control and student learning were seen to be about the same. The area believed to be the most difficult (84 percent) was "planning science and social studies without repetition." Clearly, teachers in this study believe it is more difficult to teach a multigrade classroom.

During interviews, teachers mentioned that special training for multigrade classrooms was critical. The most frequently mentioned need was having a practicum in a rural school. This was followed by developing skills in curriculum development (unit planning), class organization, individualizing instruction and collecting resources and materials.

Table 1 provides an overview of the implications, by respondent group, for multigrade instruction drawn from the Bandy (1980) study. Many other studies, conducted both in the United States and abroad, produced similar findings.

Pietila (1978) describes the changes that have occurred in the combined classrooms of Finland. Combined classrooms of grades 1-6 in a one-teacher school are very rare. As late as 1950, there were more than a thousand of these schools. But the instructional problems were so great that the Ministry of Education eliminated nearly all of them.

Because the small, rural schools play such an important part in delivering community services in this primarily rural country, a decision was made to sustain and strengthen them with centrally established curriculum guidelines and organizational standards. For example, the smallest school would have one teacher for grades 1-6, the next size school would have two teachers, where grades 1-3 would be taught by one teacher and grades 4-6 taught by the second teacher. The next size school would employ three teachers, with every two grades combined (1-2, 3-4, and 5-6). Curriculum was standardized by grade level. This posed a major problem for teachers of combined grades. If you teach a combined grade of third and fourth graders, what grade level do you teach--the third or fourth level curriculum, or both? Students transferring from one school to the next might find themselves studying the same material they had the previous year. To avert potential problems,

TABLE 1. IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING IN A MULTIGRADE CLASSROOM

	Principals' Perceptions		Teachers' Perceptions
1.	Teachers need methods for small group instruction.	1.	Teachers must be well organized to teach.
2.	Teachers must be trained to teach multigrade classrooms.	2.	Teachers should be trained in cross-age tutoring.
3.	Teachers must be prepared to use cross-age tutorial systems.	3.	Social studies and science need special adaptations.
4.	Experience must be developed in auxiliary personnel.	4.	Teachers need awareness of working with individualized reading programs.

different types of grouping strategies were piloted by the Ministry of Education. The most successful practices centered on flexible grouping that was based on student and situational needs across grades rather than by age/grade groups.

Teachers in Finland who teach in combined or multigrade classrooms believe there are many advantages to multigrade instruction: "The small size of combined grades compensates many instructional difficulties. Age-wise heterogeneous groups are natural bodies where the members educate each other. The older pupils in a combined grade may function as instructors to younger ones" (Pietila, 1978, p. 15). However, materials preparation for use with flexible grouping makes a great demand on teacher time because materials must be explicit, readable, unambiguous and coherent. Materials must "include the elements . . . [which] lead to critical thinking and develop an evaluative approach in the pupil. Primary emphasis should be placed on the development of an internal evaluation system in the materials" (p. 21). With so many different levels of students to teach, the teacher must rely heavily on student self-direction and materials that lend themselves to independent study.

The complexity of multigrade instruction is even more pronounced in developing nations. In 1980, UNESCO held a conference with representatives from India, Korea, Maldives, Nepal, Thailand, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Indonesia. The conference focused on innovative approaches to teaching disadvantaged groups and teaching in the multigrade classroom. The problems and learning difficulties created by multigrade instruction were nearly similar for each country. These differences primarily related to financial, geographic and demographic variables.

Multigrade classes in these countries tend to have large numbers of students and few teachers. The most common pattern of organization is the two-grade combination class. However, three or more grades per classroom were common to all countries. Of the eight countries represented, none indicated they had multigrade schools with a range of more than four grades. For example, an individual teacher may have a classroom of 30 fourth graders and 27 fifth graders or a classroom of 35 students in grades 3 through 6. Teachers in these situations face a formidable teaching challenge.

During the conference, five general problem areas emerged:

1. Inadequately trained teachers

2. Scarcity of varied levels and types of materials

3. Lack of flexible and special types of curriculum organization for multigrade classes

4. Inadequate school facilities

5. Lack of incentives for teachers of multiple classes (UNESCO, 1981)

Similar to preservice training in the United States, all countries participating in the conference reported that the teacher preparation for working in multigrade classrooms was identical to that provided for teachers of single-grade classrooms. In other words, individuals going into teaching were not prepared for teaching multigrade classrooms.

Ironically, the concerns and depiction of problems in these developing countries echo many of the concerns voiced in the United States and Canada by multigrade classroom teachers and rural educators. The most prominent similarity is the need for curriculum and program modification that reflect the culture of the local community and the needs of students within the demands created by multigrade organization. In this regard, two recommendations emerged from the conference.

First, curriculum needs to be restructured so that it is community based: "The environment in which the community lives, the history and culture, the utilization of skilled persons in the community for improving the quality of education should be emphasized" (UNESCO, 1981, p. 80; Wigginton, 1985).

Second, innovative programs have a difficult time because the existing educational system is traditional and this constrains perceptions of what may be possible: "The four walls of the classroom and the long periods demanded by programs in different countries somewhat inhibit and restrict the child's activities. Outdoor activities should be encouraged and experiences outside the classroom should be given a place in the curriculum" (UNESCO, 1981, p. 86).

Multigrade classroom instruction places greater demands on teachers than teaching in a single grade. To be effective, teachers need to spend more time in planning and preparation. This often means modifying existing grade level materials to ensure students will be successful. In addition, there are many demands that are simply conditions of rural life and although rural living can have many rewards, the unique demands can have a stressful impact the rural teacher (Miller, 1988). When considered along with the requirements of the multigrade classroom, it is clear that the rural, multigrade classroom teacher has a demanding, but potentially very rewarding job.

Instruction in a Multigrade Classroom

Clearly, teaching a broad range of grade levels in the same classroom is complex and demanding. How can one teacher juggle all those grades with their wide levels of student maturity, ability and motivation? How can one teacher possibly prepare for the many curricular areas, meet individual student needs and have time to eat lunch? But there are many successful teachers and students who are living proof that mixed grade classes are a viable organizational structure for learning. Although empirical studies of these classrooms are quite scarce, enough descriptive literature exists to illustrate both the complexity and the rewards of the multigrade classroom.

Dodendorf (1983) conducted a study of a Midwestern rural two-room school where 35 students, spanning five grades, were taught. The classroom was organized into two rooms. The "lower" room contained students in grades K-4 while the "upper" room contained students in grades 5-8. All aspects of classroom life were carefully observed and their achievement test scores were compared with students from urban schools. Five positive environmental characteristics emerged from the observational data:

1. School Routines: These were structured so that children began the day, completed workbook assignments, met in small groups, went to the library, told stories, etc., with a minimum amount of noise and disruption. In part, this was due to a scheduling tree where each student's assignment was posted. It was also due to the highly predictable nature of class routines. For example, spelling tests were given all at once with the unique words for each grade given in turn.

2. Group Learning: Each grade met with the teacher twice a day. When non-grouped students needed help, they sought out an older student first and then waited at the teacher's station. Aides from the community might have been helpful, but the teacher felt that confidentiality was a problem.

3. Interdependence: This area was found to be the most striking quality in the school. Younger children often approached older children for help. Mixing of ages and grades was seen both in the classroom and at recess.

4. Independence: Observed work habits of children indicated a high degree of self-discipline. They had specific assignments and timelines to meet. They passed out corrected workbooks without teacher prompting.

5. Community Involvement: Community members frequently visited the school. Mothers cooked hot lunch once a month and planned holiday parties. The board chairman stopped by to see if there were any needs. There did not appear to be a clear demarcation between the school and the community. Student attitudes toward new people entering the classroom were always hospitable and friendly. An example was the way kindergartners were welcomed into the classroom. Older students were warm and helped them, frequently explaining what was being worked on.

Results were favorable for the rural school. In terms of academics, students performed nearly the same as their urban counterparts. Only on a social studies subtest was there any significant difference. In terms of classroom climate and social relationships, the author noted that:

> Several advantages accrued for children and their parents in this rural school. The observed positive qualities far outweighed the disadvantages, and, more importantly, the values emphasized in the school reflected the community's values. This match of values is rarely achieved in heterogeneous

> urban schools. Value congruence between home and school certainly fostered a secure, stable world for these children to grow up in (p. 103).

Clearly, Dodendorf's study suggests that the five-grade classroom can be a socially and academically effective learning environment for students. The implication, however, is that success depends on the ability of the teacher to organize and manage instruction so that cooperation, independence and a motivation to learn become environmental norms.

Embry (1981) describes the history of Utah's country schools since the early 1900s. Of particular interest is her description of two very small one-and two-room schools. Garrison School is less than 20 years old and consists of a small office, closet space and one large classroom that can be divided into two areas. In 1980, there were nine students covering a span of six grades. Students were given responsibility for a large share of housekeeping tasks on a rotating basis: keeping the room clean (janitor), taking care of paper and supplies (supply clerk), checking out books (librarian), ringing the bell, monitoring play equipment, organizing the calendar, leading flag salute and sharpening pencils. Each week a student was honored by not having duties for the week. Developing self-reliance, responsibility and independence in students enabled the teacher to better meet individual student needs. It also developed a strong sense of community and cooperation within the classroom.

In order to meet the needs of all students at their respective instructional level, the teacher relied heavily on scheduling and cross-age tutoring. For example, the student who was the acting librarian that week read a daily story to younger children while the teacher worked with the older students. Students also worked together to complete tasks while the teacher met students individually. Reading, math, English and spelling were handled in this individualized manner. All other subjects were taught as a group, with each student working at their particular level: art, social studies, science, and music projects were frequently employed. The entire school also sang together, played recorders, had a marching band, and published a school newspaper. Because the school is so isolated, it serves as the center of the community. Parents provided help with track meets, field trips and special programs.

Park Valley, Utah, is a slightly larger school than Garrison with two teachers serving grades K-10. Students were divided into a K-4 class and a 5-10 class. There was an aide in the lower level who taught kindergarten under the teacher's supervision. This freed the teacher to work with the older students. An additional aide came in several times a week and provided time for the teacher to work on academic subjects. On the aide's days off, the teacher worked on music, arts, crafts and physical education. A similar pattern of organization was followed with the upper level class. Because of the complexity of subject matter in the upper level class, three aides worked under the teacher's supervision.

In the lower level class, the teacher organized instruction around key concepts that could be introduced to all students and then individualized to the different levels in the class. For example, time was explained to all the students. The youngest ones drew hands on clocks while the teacher gave instruction on minutes to other students. Special activities also serve as a basis for total grouping activities: fire prevention week led to a play, Valentine's Day led to an all-school party, the Christmas program involved everyone. For Columbus Day and Thanksgiving, students all worked together on special projects. Students were also grouped by ability so that the talented second grader could work with the fourth grader or the slower student could work with younger students for special skills.

In both Garrison and Park Valley Schools, the teachers took full advantage of the flexibility afforded a multigrade classroom. The teachers used a two-phased approach to group instruction. In the first phase, they introduced a concept to the entire class (across all grade levels). This allowed for cross-grade interaction with the concurrent benefits of younger students learning from older ones. It also was a more efficient use of teacher time. In the second phase, the teacher had students engaged in closed-task activities at their respective ability levels. Students can also be easily moved from one ability level to another as needed without feeling the stigma that is usually associated with out-of-grade placements.

Special events such as holidays, field trips, or any activity that does not require strict grouping by ability (such as closed-task skills), were organized around total class participation. Every member of the class contributes and shares in the successes of everyone else. Students also learn to be responsible and self-directed, able to work independently, provide help to others, and receive help when needed. This independence is critically important because it enables the teacher to work individually with students.

Betsy Bryan's (1986) story is unique. She completed her teaching degree in 1980 from an eastern college. While getting her teaching degree she student taught in a small rural two-room school and became convinced that she wanted to teach in a similar situation. Unable to secure a position on the East Coast, she went to New Mexico and obtained a position as a K-1 teacher (so she was told by the school board). With difficulty she found a house to live in and then school began. However, things had changed since her interview with the school board. She now had a class of 18 students ranging from ages five to nine:

> Developmentally, they ranged from kids who barely spoke and still wet their pants to children who were ready for third grade work. Some spoke Spanish and some didn't. There were child neglect cases and others who came from caring homes. A few had learning disabilities while most learned easily and delighted in it (p. 3).

To make matters even more formidable, she had no "professional direction or support, limited materials, and little experience" (p. 3). She was not supervised or expected to maintain grade level differences. However, she had student taught with two master rural teachers who provided examples upon which she could pattern her own teaching.

At first, in order to provide structure and order, she stuck to the basal reader and the other available materials. As the year progressed and she developed a relationship with her class, Bryan began developing her own materials, "scrounging through garage sales for children's books, and visiting a teacher center one hundred miles away to get ideas and supplies" (p. 3). Unfortunately, Bryan does not provide sufficient detail to allow the reader to know how she managed instruction or curriculum. She does tell us that national test scores revealed her students were performing above the national average. Although positive about her first teaching experience, Bryan left after only one year.

Unlike the Dodendorf (1983) study or the description of the two rural Utah schools, Bryan found herself an outsider in an unknown teaching situation. She faced difficulty finding housing, a sudden change in her teaching assignment, feelings of isolation from other teachers and the community. One wonders: If Bryan had remained, would her experience have turned out more like that described by Dodendorf? From her own words, it seems as if conditions in the school and community preempted that possibility:

> . . . it appears that the district [I] taught in [was] full of conflict and lacked leaders who could solve these conflicts. The staffs . . . were from diverse backgrounds and had widely different motivations and philosophies. There were bound to be problems and yet neither the community nor the administration nor the teachers were able to resolve them. [The district] lacked a sense of direction and demonstrated little concern for their teachers. Other factors that influenced [my] decision to leave included living conditions and the loneliness [I] felt trying to fit into [a] rural close-knit community (p. 5).

Ann Hoffman's (1973) story is quite different from that of Betsy Bryan (1986). Hoffman's school was smaller than Bryan's, but her class size and range of students were similar. When Hoffman first began to teach in the Kingvale two-room school, she had 15 students in grades K-3 and no aide, but after three years her class grew to 27 students and an aide was hired. Hoffman says that when she first began teaching in Kingvale, "we had a wonderful time. In the past two years the class load has grown. We still have a wonderful time . . . but a lot noisier one!" (p. 42).

Hoffman (1973) describes in detail how she organized her classroom to accommodate student needs. Clearly, her planning and organization were well in advance of instruction. Before school began, she reviewed science and social studies texts for upper-grade students and made a list of what must be covered, by week, for the entire year. Materials and films were ordered at this time.

Hoffman distinguished between those subjects that lend themselves to total class instruction and those that must be taught on a more individualized and/or graded basis. For example, health, storytime, literature, drama and music can be taught to the total class. These subjects are also considered "elastic" in that they can be altered, combined or skipped depending on circumstances. Consistent time is scheduled for high priority, skill-based subjects such as reading and math. For example, reading and math were taught in the morning, with students working independently while the teacher conferenced or taught other students. First grade was taught as a group, but the other grades are primarily individualized. Index cards were used to track individual progress. Reading was taught for 70 minutes daily.

What is clear from Hoffman's account of her classroom is that she was well organized and had a clear structure for the way instructional events unfolded. Students knew what was expected and classroom routines were well established. There was also a sense of the novel and interesting. There were daily student oral presentations (across grades) of stories, poems, reports and current events. A learning center on magnets and a center with special books for students could be found. Friends dropped into the classroom and became part of a lesson. Hoffman says she tried to keep her room interesting. But she notes the multigrade environment is not all roses:

> I can't pass a problem child on to another teacher the next year. I can't use the same old art ideas year after year. Science, social studies, music--every subject has to be completely revamped each year (p. 45).
>
> Films are boring when seen for several years in a row and so have to be changed. Room decorations must be new and different. I can't get new ideas from the teachers next door. I have to be super-prepared or I'm in for a very hectic day (p. 45).

Yet despite these changes, the strengths far outweigh the disadvantages:

> . . . [I]t is a most satisfying feeling to watch a kindergartner mature into a hard-working third-grader. A child can easily be placed ahead or back in areas in which he excels or is having trouble. Older children can work with the younger children . . . we have a ski program for physical education. The parents are friendly and helpful (p. 45).

Conclusion

The multigrade classroom and one-room school are alive and well in rural America. Stories like Ann Hoffman's from Kingvale abound if someone is there to hear them. Unfortunately, the story told by Betsy Bryan is often heard instead. Problems of inadequate facilities, poor leadership, and limited resources have been used as evidence for seeking consolidation. Without question, teaching in a multigrade classroom with more than two grades is a demanding task requiring a special type of individual. But it also requires training, community understanding and support.

As evidenced in the descriptions presented, the multigrade teacher must be well organized and put in lots of preparation time. Educators have much to learn from these teachers about classroom management and instructional organization. The multigrade classroom is an environment where routines are clearly understood and followed. Students learn to be self-directed learners, often working alone or in small groups. They must also be able to help others and serve as positive role models. A supportive family-like atmosphere often must be developed, one in which cooperation and solidarity among all students predominates. Without these elements, a multigrade teacher could not manage the vast variability in student needs. Bruce Barker (1986) does an excellent job summarizing the characteristics and working conditions that the multigrade classroom teachers faces:

> She lives in a remote setting in either the Midwest or far West, enjoys teaching in a small school . . . she teaches an average of 11 students ranging in grades one through eight, works an average of about nine hours a day in tasks related to instruction, yet is also the school custodian and school secretary. She may even prepare the school lunch and drive the school bus. . . the assignment to teach in a one-teacher school may be the most demanding of all positions in the profession, but for those who love young people and enjoy teaching, it could well be the most rewarding (p. 150).

On face value, students in multigrade classrooms would appear to fare better than students in a single-grade classroom. However, the evidence suggests that from the point of view of school organizational norms and levels of teacher preparedness, the multigrade classroom generally serves as a temporary remedy to school enrollment and financial concerns.

In other words, most multigrade (especially combined grades) classrooms are viewed as temporary remedies to be endured for a year (or so) until things return to "normal." Lest we too quickly forget our educational heritage in the district school, there still are more than 1,000 one-room schools in the United States where three or more grades are taught together (Muse, Smith & Barker, 1987). But the tide of teacher and administrative opinion strongly favors organizing schools by grade level.

The skills needed to effectively teach the multigrade and the single-grade (multilevel) classroom appears to be quite similar. The differences between the two classrooms may be more a product of socialization and expectation than of fact. Clearly, students are harmed when the teacher fails to recognize and teach to the individual differences in a classroom. It also is apparent that teachers are harmed when they have not been adequately prepared to teach students with varying ages and abilities. Wragg (1984) does an excellent job summarizing these instructional implications when he describes the results of a large-scale study of teaching skills:

> There seemed to be much less confidence among teachers about how best to teach bright pupils and slow learners in mixed-ability classes than in any other aspect of professional work we studied during the project. Most mixed-ability teaching was to the whole class, and some schools made almost no use at all of cooperative groupwork . . . Even the teachers we studied who were regarded as successful found it very exacting to teach a mixed-ability class well, and were less sure about their teaching of bright pupils than about other aspects (p. 197).

What does the research tell us regarding the skills required of the multigrade teacher? Wragg's (1984) observation suggests that the skills needed of the single-grade, multiability classroom are similar to those of the multigrade teacher. With an increase in the number of grades taught in a single classroom, a greater demand is placed on teacher resources, both cognitive and emotional. Six key variables affecting successful multigrade teaching were identified from the research:

1. Classroom organization: arranging and organizing instructional resources and the physical environment in order to facilitate student learning, independence and interdependence
2. Classroom management and discipline: developing and implementing classroom schedules and routines that promote clear, predictable instructional patterns, especially those that enhance student responsibility for their own learning. Developing independence and interdependence is also stressed.
3. Instructional organization and curriculum: planning, developing and implementing instructional strategies and routines that allow for a maximum of cooperative and self-directed student learning based on diagnosed student needs. This also includes the effective use of time.
4. Instructional delivery and grouping: instructional methods that will improve the quality of instruction, including strategies for organizing group learning activities across and within grade levels, especially those that develop interdependence and cooperation among students
5. Self-directed learning: developing skills and strategies in students that allow for a high level of independence and efficiency in learning individually or in combination with other students
6. Peer tutoring: developing skills and routines whereby students serve as "teachers" to other students within and across differing grade levels

In the multigrade classroom, more time must be spent in organizing and planning for instruction. This is required if the teacher wants to meet the individual needs of students and to successfully monitor student progress. Extra materials and strategies must be developed so that students will be meaningfully engaged. This allows the teacher to meet with small groups or individuals.

Since the teacher cannot be everywhere or with every student at the same time, the teacher shares instructional responsibilities with students within a context of clear rules and routines. Students know what is expected. They know what assignments to work on, when they are due, how to get them graded, how to get extra help and where to turn them in.

Students learn how to help one another and themselves. At an early age, students are expected to develop independence. The effective multigrade teacher establishes a climate to promote and develop this independence. For example, when kindergarten students enter the classroom for the first time, they receive help and guidance not only from the teacher, but from older students. Soon, they learn to be self-directed learners capable of solving many of their own needs. They become self-sufficient. Kindergartners see how other students behave and they learn what is expected of them. Because older students willingly help them, kindergartners also learn cooperation and that the teacher is not the only source of knowledge.

Instructional grouping practices also play an important role in the successful multigrade classroom. Grouping is a strategy for meeting teacher and student needs. The teacher emphasizes the similarities among the different grades and teaches to them, thus conserving valuable teacher time. For example, whole-class (across grades) instruction is often used since the teacher can have contact with more students. However, whole-class instruction in the effective multigrade classroom differs from what one generally finds in a single-grade class.

Multigrade teachers recognize that whole-class instruction must revolve around open task activities if all students are to be engaged. For example, a teacher can introduce a writing assignment through topic development where all students brainstorm for ideas. In this context, students from first through eighth grade can discuss and share their different perspectives. Students soon learn how to listen and respect the opinions of others. For the older students, first graders are not simply "those little kids from the primary grades down the hall." They are classmates. Learning cooperation is a survival skill--a necessary condition of life in the multigrade classroom. Everyone depends on each other and this interdependency extends beyond the walls of the school to include the community.

But teaching in the multigrade classroom also has many problems. It is more complex and demanding than the single-grade classroom. A teacher cannot ignore developmental differences in students nor be ill-prepared for a day's instruction. Demands on teacher time require well-developed organizational skills. Clearly, the multigrade classroom is not for the timid, inexperienced, or untrained teacher.

The implications for teacher educators, rural school board members, administrators, teachers and parents are far reaching. For those seeking more information and greater detail regarding teacher preparation, student performance and instructional strategies for the multigrade setting are referred to the complete text from which this paper has been abstracted:

> *The Multigrade Classroom: Strategies, Promising Practices and Resources for the Multigrade Educator* available from Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 101 S.W. Main Street, Suite 500, Portland, Oregon 97204.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION:
General Session
Presenter: Melba Casey
Co-Presenter: John Payne
Co-Presenter: Martha Wiley
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 8:30am-10:15am

March 17, 1991

General Session:
"School Reform Legislation and Guidelines: Meeting Mandates in the Rural Schools"

Panel Participants:

Melba Casey, Moderator
Director, West Kentucky Education Cooperative
Murray State University

John Payne
Superintendent, Johnson County, Tennessee

Martha Wiley
Superintendent, Fentress County, Tennessee

The panel discussed rural school reform, focusing on two states, Kentucky and Tennessee and the panelists experience with bringing reform to the educational system. Melba Casey discussed Kentucky's House Bill 940, available from the Kentucky Department of Education, essentially concerning selection of and accountability for education curriculum in the state of Kentucky. John Payne and Martha Wiley each discussed the education and tax reform bills under proposal to the Tennessee state legislature.

Melba Casey: Kentucky's educational structure is in the form of six large cooperatives, assembled through the local school districts. These cooperatives share funding resources and each are associated with the local school district. The thirty superintendents that direct the Kentucky school districts also oversee the cooperatives. All projects are performed on a cost-sharing basis, except for a federally funded pilot project for an interactive television instructional program and a field-based diagnostics center for the disabled.

The educational reform act, Kentucky's House Bill 940, will be supervised by two organizations: The Office of Educational Accountability, an attachment to the Legislative Research Commission, and the Kentucky Technology Council, a state organization. Through the Technology Council, a fiscal management system will be developed that will interconnect the Kentucky Department of Education with the school districts, providing the ability to look at the complete financial picture for the entire educational system.

In the past, the Kentucky state educational organizations have been slow to develop programs and allocate funding toward education; as a result Kentucky has lagged far below the national average in expenditures per pupil. In response to the state's neglect of educational funding, sixty-six superintendents in the state organized the Council for Better Education Lawsuit, comprised of the governor, legislature, administrators and educators. The suit was awarded in the lower courts, declaring the state's financial system unconstitutional. The suit went through the Kentucky Supreme Court, where the presiding judge declared the entire educational system to be unconstitutional. The result was a massive reform, under the guiding principle that each student in the state be given the opportunity for equal education. In response, state revenues were increased by $1.3 billion over a two year period, and nearly two-fifths was allocated to education. A task force was set up to establish interaction between legislators and educators to manage and direct the influx of revenue allocated to education. Private consultants (notably Augin Blake) were employed to reform the educational financial, governing and organizational structures. The task force created a comprehensive educational reform act, and was adopted by the state on April 11, 1990. The increase in taxation caused some political backlash, including the non-election of one incumbent senator.

The reformed organization divided the educational system into three parts: Governance, curriculum and finance. Sweeping changes were made under governance: Every position of the Kentucky Department of Education was abolished. New members were appointed by the governor, after undergoing a confirmation process conducted by the legislature. Not all nominees selected by the governor were approved by the legislature, and even small infractions have been cited in the inquisition process, but the process serves adequately to check and balance new member selection. The state's office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction was stripped of responsibilities, and salary for this position was decreased to $3,000 /. A special committee selected a new Commissioner of Education, and the commissioner then hired a Chief of Staff to manage the Department of Education's operations. The new education administration since has been criticized for the occurrence of nepotism, but this is actually not as widespread as rumors would indicate. Part of the new law restricts nepotism on the school boards, and causes conflict in the rural school districts, where interrelations are common. Nonetheless the new law is being heeded: a principal's spouse may not work in the same school building and will be removed to another school. If the spouse is a certified teacher, a lesser qualified teacher will be removed to accommodate the spouses' relocation. This practice is causing many problems, particularly in the rural and small schools. A superintendent's spouse may continue to work if already employed by the 1989-90 school year. Otherwise, the spouse may not be promoted in any way, cannot hold any administrative position or supervise any certified educator.

Other restrictions include limits on campaign contributions for school board members of $100 from individuals and $200 from political action committees. Because the board members command a large number of positions, off-record estimations of successful political campaigns have run as high as $60,000, largely due to contributions from private factions. The Teacher Certification Council was abolished and a new Teacher Performance Standards Board was appointed--the majority of members being classroom teachers. In 1994, superintendents will have to pass a proposed assessment to keep their jobs. Newly appointed superintendents will have a year to pass this test. Principals are already being assessed based on the NASSP process. Under the new education law, teachers are not allowed to actively participate in school board elections, but this aspect may be challenged by some teachers who have argued the restriction is against their constitutional rights.

Before the reform was adopted a council for student performance standards had already been in place; this council was given responsibility to create the criteria for the performance-based assessment. To date, five national consultants have been hired to create this assessment plan for Kentucky. The student performance assessment is a method of determining accountability of the educational system, and also serves to establish criteria for obtaining funding. Up to the present, it has not been within the boundaries of the law to assess teachers by the students' performance. The assessment plan will be developed after comparison of tests given in the 1991-92 and 1993-94 school years; the tests will be evaluated per school building, so that the performance of the teaching staff as a whole is given evaluation. If a school district is not meeting the level of expected performance, it will be eligible for a school improvement fund. The fund appoints distinguished educators to work with the school's teachers to give educational, technical or administrative assistance. If the school does not meet performance standards after a specified time period, parents are allowed to transfer their children to another school, or school district, at the previous school's expense.

Schools also must have instructional programs for four-year old children at-risk. The at-risk definition in the reform act is children receiving a free lunch. If 20% of the students receive a free lunch, the school is eligible to apply for special educational grants. Another requirement for grant allocation is the development of family resource centers to provide for children needing before/after school care, and childcare during the summer if there is no other available facility. Requirement for the upper grades is providence of "youth resource centers," either in or near the schools: Help referrals, informal counseling, employment training and drug/alcohol abuse counseling must be provided for both students and their parents. Children with disabilities must be provided for, beginning at the age of three. A state salary schedule has been developed, and school districts must meet the minimum salary requirements. The reform act also suggested implementing a 15% increase in school district taxes with the incentive that if the school districts impose the 15% tax, the state would match that money. As it turns out, the state was unable to fully match all school districts meeting this requirement--many more school districts than predicted raised their taxes, and so the schools received less in matching funds.

The authority for the hiring and firing of teachers was taken away from the local school boards. The local board now forms a special committee to hire the superintendent, but that is the extent of their authority. Authority has been channeled to a school-based council, a body of comprised of three teachers, the principal (acting as chair), and two parents. Any change in this configuration must be approved by the state board of education. Regional resource centers will be established across the state to provide technical assistance to school districts, especially in the area of professional development. Also in this plan, the state may contract with regional cooperatives to become the regional resource centers, but this may not happen. However, a time limit has been set for a school district to cooperate with another district to provide staff development. Funding has been provided for these consortiums based on the student population of the school.

John Payne: Tennessee is in transition. In Tennessee, the small rural systems got together because they had no industrial base, no real property tax base. So the rural education systems got together because they couldn't continue to manage without reform. State law has not yet been changed, but there are two bills before the legislature now; one deals with education reform and the other deals with tax reform. In my talk today I will discuss the present educational system in rural Johnson County, the farthest northeastern county in Tennessee.

I am an immediate past president of the superintendent's organization in Tennessee. There are two organizations of superintendents: There is a superintendent's study council, directed by the state Dept. of Education, and an organization of superintendents that is a liaison with the Dept. of Education. I am past president of the latter organization. This organization started about five years ago, with the objective of bringing the entire educational community in Tennessee together at roundtable sessions to discuss education reform in Tennessee. That effort was fairly successful, and a Basic Education Plan (BEP) was borne out of these sessions. The BEP was developed as a model to be used in litigation proceedings, similar to the educational lawsuit that occurred in Kentucky. The lawsuit has been heard and is awaiting a ruling, which may occur about mid-April 1991.

The educational community involved in the formulation of the BEP was comprised of the state Board of Education, Department of Education, Commission of Education, Education Association, Superintendent's Study Council, and the Council of County Commissions. The state Board of Education published a master plan which became a working document for Tennessee educational reform that encompassed most of the ideas developed through the roundtable sessions. However, not all of the information was ultimately included in the eventual publication of the BEP, now before the legislature.

Tennessee is now going into a second educational reform--it's first was less comprehensive than the current legislation under proposal and was supported by Lamar Alexander, formerly known as the "education governor" of Tennessee. Alexander is now working at the federal level.

School boards are responsible for establishing policy by district. Mandatory training for all school board members is performed by the state school board association and the curriculum is developed and approved by the state Department of Education. Last year, Tennessee raised the standards for school board members; they must now have at least a high school education and the above mentioned training. Presently, superintendents may be appointed three ways: 1) by the state Board of Education, 2) elected by the county populace 3) appointed by county commissions. With adoption of the new bill, all superintendents would be appointed by the Board of Education.

Annual testing, under the proposed reform, will be performed by use of the new Tennessee Assessment of Academic Progress. This is a value-added test, where testing is compared from the one school year to the next, and the differences are evaluated. But this test is unique in that it combines the national norm with local objectives. Five percent of the funding in this program will be allocated to schools as an incentive for a measured increase in students' performance. Tennessee seems to have made optional many of the mandated reforms for the Kentucky educational system, which I feel has some benefit. For example, minimum standards for academic progress must be met, but grading for K-3 is optional. If standards are not met, the superintendent will be placed on probation, and the state Department of Education will evaluate the school district and make recommendations for improvement. If the recommendations are not applied and no improvements are performed, the superintendent and the school board may be removed and elections for a new board and superintendent would follow.

Other measures include a computerized management information system designed to connect the state Department of Education offices to every district across the state and then from every district level to the schools. Tennessee does not require kindergarten, but is provided for children if desired. Proposed class size is restricted to between 20-30 students, dependent on the grade level. An initiative from the state for at-risk children lowers the pupil-teacher ratio to 1:15. If 60% of the children are on free lunch, the state will allocate special funding. Number of required courses will be increased from 11 to 13, including mandating a course each in American history and computer education. Testing at third grade and eighth grade would require students to perform at a certain level before being allowed to pass into the next grade. Also, students would need to pass a proficiency test before receiving their high school diploma. Proposed for high school is two tracts of study--one college-bound, emphasizing an academic curriculum, and the other is vocational oriented. Both are similar, but the difference is that students will need to establish a purpose at the onset of their entry to high school--in preparation for college or the workplace.

Community involvement and regulation will be afforded by a number of means. Tennessee is going to allow site-based, or school-based, management for schools but hasn't defined as closely what that is going to be. Each local school system will have to do their own plan and then have it approved by the state. There is no state plan being sent to the local level. The governor is committed to eliminate 3700 rules and regulations. For example, regulations on facilities is being reduced in volume to three sentences! One day will be set aside for parent-teacher conferences. Adult basic education will be extended as well.

Martha Wiley: Tennessee ranks 45th in the national in personal income tax, 38.8% below the US average for per capita state income tax, and 50th in per capita spending for education. There are two bills detailing the objectives of the tax plan: A reform bill for education and a financial bill that would give Tennessee an income tax. Presently, Tennessee is one of ten states that has no personal income tax, and one of seventeen that taxes groceries. Objectives of the tax plan are educational reform, fairness, to remain a low tax state, and for economic development. The tax base is currently regressive, in that none of the taxes are tied to economic advancement: Tennessee gains revenue by property tax and sales tax. Since there are no income taxes imposed, many people residing in the bordering states will work in Tennessee, and take their earnings home without taxation. Specific points of the tax reform law includes: A 4% flat income tax rate with adjusted gross income with a diminishing $7,000 exemption per person; exempt food and utilities from taxation; remove the local sales tax. At present, state sales tax stands at 6%, and each county may add up to 3% to that.

I am superintendent to a county with approximately 2300 students, operating on a budget of about $2 million. We have no large economic forces in our county--all businesses operate within modest means; the per capita income in our county is $8,000. Sixty-six percent of the people in the county do not have a high school diploma; 38% do not have an eighth grade education. Therefore, we have a lack of industry. The school board may not levy any taxes--the county commission sets the tax rate for the school general and for the county general. When I was first appointed superintendent of Fentress County, the county commission exacted a funding cut of about a quarter of a million dollars. We had a choice of cutting eighteen teaching positions or cutting transportation, and so we cut bussing for a year. The following year funding was restored for transportation.

If the income tax reform bill and the BEP pass, we will be looking at $424 million additional in K-8: This will increase funding in my county by an additional $2 million. If everything fails, we will just get our cutback of $40 million: In my county that would mean a cutback of about $1 million. If the BEP passes and taxes fail, we will still get the $40 million cutback, but we will have to implement the BEP, which is an impossibility. There are many legislated requirements we cannot fund, but we are obligated to fulfill. The problem is, everyone wants educational reform, but no one wants to pay for it!

To legislators, backing the tax reform bill could mean jeopardizing their seats--currently only nine people in the legislature have come out in favor of the bill. Town meetings with representatives from the state are being planned to provide a public forum for this bill, to be accompanied by an intensive media campaign. If the tax reform bill passes, nearly 80% of the people in Fentress County will pay less taxes. But this is not apparent to the public, who view the bill as requiring an increase in taxes. If there is no reform, the schools will not be able to financially uphold the educational system, and if there is a cutback, the system will need to operate at a deficit. We are to the point now that many of the county systems are running in a deficit this year. In order to keep from deficit spending this year we exacted the above mentioned cut in transportation. But we have held on about as long as we can, and if there is no tax reform, our educational system will be in dire need.

NRSSC PRESENTATION:
Exemplary Program Competition
Award Winner
Presenter: Victoria L. Bernhardt
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am-12:00pm

Induction for the Beginning Teacher Program
California State University, Chico

The Induction for the Beginning Teacher Program (IBT) is a comprehensive and innovative program of support and skill-building designed to assist beginning teachers of rural Northern California in making the transition from effective students to effective teachers, and ultimately to retain them in the profession. IBT participants receive comprehensive instruction in targeted skills through seminars delivered on the California State University, Chico (CSU, Chico) campus and over instructional television. IBT pairs each beginning teacher with a successful, experienced teacher trained in peer coaching and observation techniques. Each pair forms a teaching team that develops action-research plans for implementing seminar concepts in the beginning teacher's classroom. The experienced teacher-peer coach observes, supports, and provides feedback to his/her beginning teacher on a weekly basis. The program has been deemed highly successful by its four years of participants and their administrators. Its success is due largely to its comprehensive and individualistic structure, and to the fact that the Program has been able to meet the needs of teachers in isolated two teacher schools, as well as the teachers in the "emerging urban" schools of CSU, Chico's vast 36,000 square mile service area (almost the size of the state of Ohio). The conceptual framework and components of the IBT are described below.

Conceptual Framework

Teaching is a complex profession. Yet, traditionally, it requires new teachers to perform the same tasks, at the same level of competence, as the seasoned professionals in the classroom next door. Recent literature and empirical research on beginning teachers indicate that many aspects of teaching cannot be learned or experienced during the pre-service university program. Some aspects of teaching can be experienced only as an individual becomes a new teacher--alone in the classroom.

Without guidance, support, technical assistance, and supervision, beginning teachers may resort to survival techniques which rely on teaching methods that prevent them from developing into effective teachers. As a result, many new teachers leave the profession when their frustrations peak, resulting in an attrition rate of 40% of all teachers by their second year (The Governor's 1991 Report on Education, p. 37). Even more alarming is the evidence that those teachers who are seen as having the most potential may be the first to leave.

IBT Philosophy and Goals

The underlying philosophy of the IBT is that beginning teachers have the tools they need for developing into successful, long-term teachers. What they need is a support program which allows them to grow into the profession--a safety net for experimentation, evaluation, and reflection.

The goals of IBT are to provide a support and information system that will:

- improve instructional abilities,
- build self-assessment and reflection,
- enhance working conditions and job satisfaction by reducing professional and geographic isolation,
- model professionalism, and provide opportunities for professional growth,
- increase teacher retention rates,
- retain the best teachers, and
- provide the best educational experience for school age children.

Structures for Implementation

The structure of IBT has proven effective in accomplishing the goals of the program and has been modified to meet the changing needs of the service area. However, the basic structure of the IBT has remained constant and has been proven to be an appropriate model for the induction of beginning teachers. In essence:

- Each beginning teacher is paired with a successful experienced teacher, preferably from the same grade level, content area, and school. This pair forms a teaching team.
- The experienced teacher is trained by the Program in peer coaching and observation techniques.
- The teaching team attends monthly seminars both on-campus and at local Instructional Televisions for Students (ITFS) sites. ITFS is CSU, Chico's interactive microwave television system that links the campus to the 14 Northern California counties in it's service region. ITFS allows participants to view the IBT from their counties without having to drive up to six hour to attend all sessions on campus.
- Following each monthly seminar, each teaching team develops an action-research plan for implementing the seminar's concepts in the beginning teacher's classroom.
- Peer coaches observe their beginning teachers on a weekly basis, either in person or on videotape, to reinforce the implementation of the action-research plan.
- Following each observation, the beginning teacher and peer coach hold a post-observation conference to review the successful elements of the beginning teacher's performance, and to plan the next logical step.

This structure enables the teaching team to focus on specific skills after each seminar. The teaching team plans together for this learning, and participates as a team in implementing the plan, evaluating the results, and projecting future action. Effort is devoted to identifying successful experiences, allowing the beginning teacher to learn from what he/she is doing right. This structure offers safety to the beginning teacher so that they may experiment and find sound instructional techniques that work for them.

Content Emphasized

IBT content emphasizes positive, constructive issues which help beginning teachers sort out the difference between a problem and an condition, and how to respond appropriately to each. All content areas are based on a synthesis of research and are presented in an activities-oriented approach. Content includes:

- Creating a Positive Classroom Environment
- Developing and Implementing a Discipline Plan
- Understanding Your Power and How to Use It
- Time Management: Balancing Personal and Professional Commitments
- Implementing Model Curriculum Standards in Your Lessons
- Student Evaluation and Motivation
- Teaching Students Who are at Risk
- Teacher as Instructional Leader
- Coaching Teachers to Higher Levels of Effectiveness-for peer coaches

These topics were chosen on the basis of the needs assessment that was conducted in the design phase of the IBT and through a survey conducted of the first year IBT beginning teachers. They were the most frequently mentioned in the literature and by professional educators (both experienced educators and new teachers) as areas of difficulty for beginning teachers. Thus, these topics serve as a sound instructional base for the program as well as a viable springboard for the action planning and "learn by doing" support that are integral to the success of IBT participants.

IBT seminars focus on identification of individual talents and teaching styles and exploration of how each might be used effectively. In addition, beginning teachers are encouraged to explore different styles as potential adaptations that might be useful in a variety of classroom settings. Emphasis is placed on refining what the beginning teacher does well and introducing variations on these strategies as a way of generating options so he/she gains confidence and a realistic perspective as well as a set of educationally sound techniques.

Results

Annual program evaluations clearly demonstrate that IBT is an effective program for the early professional development of beginning teachers. Beginning teachers have consistently improved their classroom performances according to the observations of their peer coaches. Annually participants have cited the IBT as a primary impetus in their decisions to continue into a second and third year in the profession.

Program evaluations have, however, also uncovered some unexpected benefits. Peer coaches have consistently evaluated the focus and relevancy of the IBT training even more highly that beginning teachers, both for the beginning teacher and for themselves. The program has served as a valuable review of teaching skills for experienced teachers, and a valued opportunity to discuss the concerns of professional educators. Many peer coaches have cited the IBT as a much needed rejuvenator of their commitment to teaching and have taken new pride in being teachers. Others have used their IBT experience as an opportunity to plan future career moves, testing their aptitude and interest in the supervisory role. All IBT peer coaches have viewed the program as a unique opportunity to contribute to the teaching profession.

Administrators have also noted the effect of IBT in their schools. IBT beginning teachers are frequently viewed as more effective earlier in the year than beginning teachers not in IBT. Students are seen responding more favorably to these new teachers. The enthusiasm generated by the teaching teams does have a "spill over" effect on other faculty members in these schools, and their collaborative learning has embraced fellow staff members. Administrators report that IBT has fostered development of positive leadership skills among both beginning and experienced teachers and has encouraged more open communication patterns in their schools. Peer coaching is increasingly viewed in a favorable light by faculty members who have observed IBT teaching teams in action, and several schools have requested training from CSU, Chico in how to implement peer coaching programs in their schools.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION:
Exemplary Program Competition
Award Winner
Presenter: Robert Rogers
Co-Presenter: Nyle G. Waters
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am-12:00pm

Robert G. Rogers,
Superintendent

Nyle G. Waters,
Principal

Scott-Morgan CUD #2
100 W. Rockwood St.
Bluffs, IL 62621

EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY: SCOTT-MORGAN SCHOOL DISTRICT NO.2

Throughout America, educators, legislators, and the general public are increasingly interested in the potential of modern technology to transform education. Schools, urban and rural, want to use technology as a vehicle for addressing poor academic performance, or providing enrichment options for students already performing well by traditional standards.

The Scott-Morgan School District is committed to educational technology as a means of providing instruction and ancillary services to students, faculty, and staff. From satellite learning to computer use, the district is a leader in the use of technology in the classroom, school district management, staff development and extracurricular activities for students.

Located in West Central Illinois in the town of Bluffs, the district is small and rural. Three hundred twenty three (323) students attend classes in grades pre-kindergarten through twelve.

LONG DISTANCE LEARNING

Long distance learning via satellite is used as a resource for expanding and creating new options for education. The use of interactive television has increased the educational opportunities for the 74 high school students. Anatomy & Physiology, Marine Science, and Astronomy have been added to the high school curriculum using the TI-IN Star Network Program.

Students have the opportunity to take classes via the satellite that would not normally be offered in a rural school curriculum. Last year, a Bluffs student was named as the top student in the Marine Science class. She was selected from a field of over 200 students enrolled from several states. Two students from Bluffs High School were selected as TI-IN Star Scholars from a field of 400 qualified applicants.

A foundation was started for long distance learning scholarships for high school students. The local bank is the administrator of the foundation. All legal fees and administrative costs were covered by outside agencies.

Student enrichment programs provided through this media are designed to enhance and reinforce concepts presented in the regular classroom. Teachers use these programs to provide students with the opportunity to develop broader understanding of themselves and their world.

Improving communications among different groups in the educational community is a district commitment. In addition to curriculum use, satellite learning is used for staff development for district and area faculty, Test Preparation Sessions (SAT/ACT) for students, and informational seminars for parents and other interested individuals.

The district has participated in several staff development programs through TI-IN Star Network, Western Illinois University, NCREL (North Central Regional Educational Laboratory) and the Illinois State Board of Education. Programs through this media have served parents, students, school administrators, teachers and non-educational agencies.

COMPUTER TECHNOLOGY

The school district's major goal concerning computer education is to apply computer technology to improve instruction, expand the curriculum and improve student achievement.

Specific goals for each level of schooling have been developed. While augmenting computer awareness, the goal of the elementary program is to improve student achievement. The focus of the junior high program is computer literacy emphasizing student achievement. The goal for high school students is to develop a working knowledge of computers and to prepare them for a world that is becoming a computer oriented society.

To accomplish district computer education goals, three computer labs are provided for students. The high school lab contains 16 Novell networked MS-Dos computers. The chapter I lab contains 8 similarly equipped computers, and the elementary lab contains 40 stand-alone computers. All students (regular and special education) in grades 1 through 8 are scheduled daily into a computer lab and high school students are offered two full years of computer education. Additionally, each of the five special education classes are computer equipped. The 87 computers owned by the district gives a 1:4 computer to student ratio. Nine portable computers are available for teacher and/or student use.

The high school lab is used by the 74 students. Semester classes in computer programming, spreadsheet, word processing and data base are offered. In addition to these formal educational opportunities, high school students also use computers in many of their classes.

A second computer lab is used for the Chapter 1 Program. Students in grades one through eight work on educational deficiencies through supervised computer exercises in language arts and mathematics.

The elementary computer lab is used by elementary and junior high students. Students in grades one (1) through five (5) spend 20 minutes a day on their own computer working in a specific subject area, i.e. math, language, etc. Students in grades 6 through 8 spend at least 75 minutes a week on their own computer. Keyboarding is taught in grades 7 and 8.

The district has initiated a pilot program in fifth grade to diagnose student deficiencies in language arts and mathematics. Using computer labs, a portfolio for each student is being developed defining a Personalized Educational Program (PEP). Students who fall below the district's expectation level will be assigned a time to work on individual deficiencies in the computer lab. Students meeting or exceeding district standards will work on enrichment activities. This pilot program is supplementary to the district's standardized testing program.

Technology can provide relatively inexpensive access for students or teachers to a wide variety of information resources that few schools could duplicate through typical library or classroom resources. Technology is used to improve instruction, management, and professional development in the district.

The emphasis on staff development the past two years has been learning to utilize computers to acquire and develop materials for the classroom. Teachers are beginning to use the two telecommunications systems available for this purpose.

The district uses computers for general office use. All offices are equipped with hard drive computers. The Central Office and the High School Office are networked together sharing files as necessary. Most business and student record keeping operations are computerized. Student attendance, grade reporting and scheduling are done by computer.

Over 60% of the junior high and high school teachers are using the computer for record keeping, grade reporting, and test preparation. These activities result in considerable time savings for teachers and improved quality of learning materials for students. Teachers also use computers for classroom enrichment and remedial activities.

The district has sponsored free workshops for secretaries, teachers and administrators who wish to learn more about computers. John Wood Community College has for many years offered extension computer classes in facilities provided by the Scott-Morgan District.

TELECOMMUNICATIONS

The scope of the Jr.-Sr. High School Library is expanded beyond the limitations of its walls through the telecommunications capability of computers. The library is equipped with a computer purchased through donations from three local businesses. By using the computer, students have access to ILLINET Online, a computer system that allows a search of over eight hundred Illinois libraries. Also, students, teachers and administrators have access to a variety of information by dialing computerized data bases such as CompuServe and IRIS.

Students in vocational agriculture classes have access to up-to-the-minute market information through the DTN Commodities Service. This daily service is on line to the classroom via FM satellite.

SUMMARY

The district works with area colleges and universities for student teaching programs, visitations, and college students can participate in field experiences. In cooperation with Illinois College, 30 foreign exchange students from Kyoto's Ritsumeikan University visited the school district. These students from Japan were impressed with the technology being used in a small, rural school. Likewise, state and federal legislators have visited the school.

In a rural area, the school is the hub of activity within the community. From interscholastic contests to theatrical productions, from adult education programs to the community use of facilities, the school is the focal point of activity. The Scott-Morgan School District has expanded this concept to become the technology center of the community. The number of computers owned by the district and the expertise of the staff is acclaimed. Students, parents, community members, area schools and businesses look to the district school for direction and leadership in solving technological problems.

NRSSC PRESENTATION:
Exemplary Program Competition
Award Winner
Presenter: Frank Dagne
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am-12:00pm

THE OHIO PLAN
Ohio, Illinois 61349

The most critical problem facing small rural schools is that of declining enrollments and the serious declining of financial and economic resources. The rural crisis is further compounded by an aging population and the flight of younger families to the larger metropolitan areas.

The reliance on the local property tax to finance schools in the State of Illinois has resulted in decreasing State Aid to the local schools - particularly the small rural schools. In the suburban counties around Chicago, assessed valuation has increased while in other parts of Illinois assessed valuation (including Ohio) has declined. As you may already know, assessed valuation provides school districts with tax money. As a result, the rich districts are getting richer and the poor districts are getting poorer.

It became evident that if the town of Ohio was to continue to exist and if the school system was to continue to educate, something had to be done. It was also apparent that new students could be absorbed into the school system without additional staff members.

The community of Ohio, Illinois refused to die. A group of local business and community leaders met to examine the options available for rectifying the financial dilemma facing the school system and the community.

They discussed the tactics and methods to be employed to entice new families to live in the community of Ohio. We agreed that we must market the advantages of living in Ohio while continuing to work in the surrounding communities of Dixon, Princeton, Walnut, Mendota, Rock Falls, Sterling, Kewanee, Amboy, etc.

Ohio offers a quality educational program and a stable, safe and caring environment for children. The people of Ohio are honest, hard working and friendly. They actively support the school system, attend church regularly, and donate thousands of hours of volunteer time to insure success of school and community activities. After every snowfall, the local businessmen clear the snow from every driveway in town as a free service to all residents.

The mission of the school system reflects that every child can and will learn. Academics are a priority in Ohio, and the teachers organize their classrooms with flexibility in order to accommodate differences among learners. Our teachers set high standards for learning and let students know they are expected to meet them. The standards are set so they are both challenging and attainable.

The Plan proposed by the group of business and community leaders was to offer some financial assistance to prospective families to induce them to live in Ohio, while continuing to work at their current jobs in the neighboring towns.

The Ohio Plan was designed to offer a grant to pay up to $5,000 toward property taxes to a family purchasing a new home within the school district boundaries. A grant of $3,000 toward the payment of property taxes is offered to a family purchasing an existing home within the school district boundaries.

These home buyer grants are provided by the Ohio Growth Foundation, organized and incorporated in 1988. The Ohio Growth Foundation is comprised of a group of citizens dedicated to saving the school system. The seed money to fund this program came from financial contributions from a group of business and community leaders. A wholly owned subsidiary has been formed, called The Bulldog Development Company. The Company currently owns eight lots that will be used for future new home sites. The Company uses the profits to give grants to future home buyers.

One of the unique characteristics of this program is the fact that it is directed toward homeowners and families, rather than targeted toward new industry and job creation. Another unique factor of this program is the fact that it was started and has continued without a single dollar in the form of grants from either the State or Federal Government.

The Village of Ohio officials have been very cooperative in opening streets, providing utility hook-ups, and in supporting appropriate zoning.

News stories about the Ohio Plan were carried on virtually every ABC affiliate in America, as well as several hundred stations affiliated with NBC and CBS. Cable News Network (CNN) carried the story for several weeks and was probably most responsible for the 600 to 700 telephone calls and over 200 letters received by the Ohio Growth Foundation. The Chicago Tribune has published two separate front page stories about the program in their Sunday Editions. A feature article also appeared in the Business Week Magazine.

Illinois State Treasurer, Jerry Cosentino, on January 19, 1990 committed $1,000,000 to the community of Ohio as part of his unique Linked Deposit Loan Program. The funds are being used to promote economic growth and halt economic decline. The funds provide below market rate mortgage loans for home buyers or businesses.

The results of this program during the initial two years (1988-90) are as follows:

1. Six new homes were built and 25 existing homes were sold.
2. Five new small businesses have opened.
3. A developer from a Chicago suburb has invested his own money in a model house in Ohio.
4. A developer from Wisconsin has committed to build a 16 unit, $650,000 elderly housing project.
5. There are no existing homes available for sale or rent.
6. Property values have increased and student enrollment has increased.
7. Two-thirds of the homes sold have been sold to our own local younger families.
8. Several families from the surrounding communities have moved into the school district.

As we look back on our program, the primary ingredients for success seem to be:

1. A sincere and dedicated community that cares about providing a quality education for all youth.
2. A dedicated small group of supportive citizens, and a banker, willing to invest a small amount of money and time to make the program work.
3. An effective K-12 educational program.
4. A good relationship with the news media. We have not spent a single penny for newspaper or television publicity.

NRSSC PRESENTATION:
Exemplary Program Competition
Award Winner
Presenter: Marilyn Rennels
Co-Presenter: Rose Mary Shepherd
Co-Presenter: Richard Green
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am-12:00pm

ABSTRACT

NEOGA COMMUNITY SCHOOLS
UNIT DISTRICT #3
Neoga, Illinois

Pioneer School Reading Program
Grades 1, 2, 3

The school's mission statement makes it imperative that Pioneer School maintain an exceptional reading program. The focus of learning is directed toward students becoming productive, world citizens able to cope with diverse cultures. Therefore, a solid foundation in reading is essential. Student goals also stress that all students will not only be able to read to the best of their ability but that they will also become lifelong readers. This is interpreted as instilling the love of learning into the students while they are developing reading skills.

Regional Superintendent of Schools
Rose Mary Shepherd

Neoga Superintendent of Schools
Richard Green

Pioneer School Faculty
Principal: Robert Schwindt
First Grade Teachers: Marian Lindley, Judy Peters, Diane Brick
Second Grade Teachers: Sharon Burgess, Pan Johnson, Candace Tate
Third Grade Teachers: Connie Scott, Pat Sutherland, Melinda White
Chapter I Teacher and Director: Marilyn Rennels
Chapter I Aide: Carol Walk
Custodian (Art Consultant, Computer Help) Robert McMullen
Library Aide: Kay Starwalt
Special Education Teacher: Kim Eubank
Speech Teacher: Pat Sutton
Secretary: Christine Price
Cooks: Donna Lacy and Ruth Deadmond

Pioneer School is part of the Neoga School District. The district is located in east central Illinois in one of the poorest counties in the State. The school includes first, second, and third grade and the student population is representative of the socio-economic conditions of the community.

Most students in the Neoga school district enter school with a very limited experiential background that must be quickly expanded to facilitate reading comprehension. The task for teachers would be insurmountable without the help of enthusiastic administrators, a supportive school board, dedicated parents, and a helpful Regional School Superintendent.

To broaden the children's knowledge base, **good literature and whole language techniques** are used in every classroom. Every teacher **reads aloud** to the students every day.

Newspapers are utilized in the classrooms frequently, particularly when important world happenings touch the lives of students. **Newspapers in Education Week** has all classrooms doing extensive newspaper work. This work has led to the publishing of the ***Pioneer Times***, a monthly newspaper written and published by the students.

A carefully planned eclectic approach to reading is achieved in the school by utilizing parts of the **whole language method, a basal** (Houghton-Mifflin) **approach**, and an **intensive phonics program** (Open Court-Headway Program). **Whole class reading** instruction is also utilized in first and second grade.

Students with learning disabilities or who are mentally handicapped may have reading instruction in their regular classroom or in the **special education resource** room, depending on their special needs. Children of average ability but who are having difficulty in reading are usually eligible for **Chapter I** reading assistance. Chapter I provides thirty minutes a day of help correlated with the classroom reading.

The recent addition of a **computer laboratory** gives every student access to computer assisted instruction with software for reading activities and content area reading.

The district also sponsors a **Reading Is Fundamental** program. The program involves the use of volunteers, parents, civic employees, and administrators in the selection, preparation, and distribution of good books to the students--free of charge.

Another aspect of the reading program designed to include each child and each parent is the **Books and Beyond Read-a-thon** that is implemented during the last five months of the school year. The program reduces the television viewing time of children by increasing "at home" reading and library visitation. Another goal of the program is to produce lifetime readers.

Accelerated second and third grade students use inquiry and discussion techniques to foster higher order reading and thinking skills by participating in the **Junior Great Books** program.

Hallways and areas where students congregate, such as the cafeteria area, drinking fountains, etc., have colorful **Poetry Works** displays. Each teacher has at least one book of poetry always at hand to take advantage of any extra moment that could be used. Teachers have written grants to obtain these materials.

Some of the teachers utilize **Silent Sustained Reading** on a regular basis. Classrooms have ample supplies of books emphasizing phonetic skills as well as general vocabulary. Many of these paperbacks were purchased through teacher written grants.

There are a number of playbooks available for each grade level if **oral reading** is to be emphasized. For more exciting literary expression, puppets and other simple props. They were also obtained through teacher written mini-grants provided by the Regional Office of Education.

All in all, **the focus of the reading program is the multisensory, multifaceted approach of the classroom teacher**. First, second, and third grade teachers use the entire three hours the morning session for reading and language arts, with the exception of a fifteen minute morning break and a twice a week, twenty minute music class. In addition to the morning instruction, a story hour of 15-20 minutes takes place immediately after lunch.

NEOGA COMMUNITY SCHOOLS
UNIT DISTRICT #3
Neoga, Illinois

Pioneer School Reading Program
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Pioneer School is part of the Neoga School District. The district is located in east central Illinois in one of the poorest counties in the State. The school includes first, second, and third grade and the student population is representative of the socio-economic conditions of the community it serves.

Most students in the Neoga school district enter school with a very limited experiential background that must be quickly expanded to facilitate reading comprehension. The task for teachers would be insurmountable without the help of enthusiastic administrators, a supportive school board, dedicated parents, and a helpful Regional School Superintendent. Several workshops, seminars, and training sessions to improve teaching skills are made available by the Regional Superintendent through the educational service center. The Neoga Board of Education and administration make it possible for teachers to renew their teaching skills by sponsoring inservice programs such as **TESA**[1] (Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement) and other meaningful staff development programs.

One of the more important components of the reading program is **parental involvement**. During the third or fourth week of school, an Open House is held at the school. The Open House activities encourage entire family visitation. It is an opportunity to meet the teachers, view the school facilities, enjoy refreshments, and encourage further school contact.

At the end of the first nine weeks of school, parent-teacher conferences are scheduled. Parents are expected to attend the conferences to learn how their child is progressing. Teachers report almost 100% participation by parents.

At this time, a letter is sent home to encourage participation in the **Reading Is Fundamental**[2] program. The government sponsored **RIF** program provides not only a great opportunity for encouraging a love of reading, but gives parents and community volunteers a very important job...an opportunity to be involved in school activities. Volunteers select books, process them to be given out, present various motivational programs and activities, and oversee the distribution of books to students.

Another program made possible by parent volunteers is the **Books and Beyond, Inc.**[3] program. The program is specifically designed to limit television viewing and encourage increased recreational reading. It is a home project that requires parent involvement over a four to five month period of time. Books are read by students or by parents to students at home. Parents sign a sheet confirming the book titles read, and as each sheet with fifteen book titles is turned in to the teacher, students progress on a journey, with the goal being to complete their "trip." Parent volunteers construct a large bulletin board where student progress is displayed. Parent volunteers record student progress and prepare small rewards for distribution to students. Each child who completes a trip by reading 120 books is awarded a gold medal. They also have a chance to win savings bonds and other prizes provided by local banks and merchants.

Accelerated readers in second and third grade use inquiry and discussion to foster higher order reading and thinking skills in the **Junior Great Books**[4] program. A contract is signed by students and parents committing parents to provide encouragement and help with the special stories in the Junior Great Books series. Students must read the story twice before the weekly discussion period. To help retain the difficult vocabulary, parents help with crossword puzzles, mazes, definitions, or similar worksheets. The exhilarating discussions develop more complex reading and thinking skills. Students who finish the program are awarded a certificate of completion at the Spring Awards Ceremony.

Hallways and areas where students congregate, such as the cafeteria area, drinking fountains, etc., have colorful **Poetry Works**[5] displays. Every teacher has at least one book of poetry always at hand to take advantage of any extra moment that could be used. Teachers have written grants to obtain these materials.

Some teachers utilize **Silent Sustained Reading** on a regular basis. The school library and each classroom have an ample number of books which emphasize the phonetic skills being taught as well as general vocabulary development. Many of these paperbacks were purchased through grants written by teachers.

There are a number of playbooks available for each grade level when **oral reading** and speech skills are emphasized. For more exciting literary expression, puppets and other simple props are available. They were also obtained through teacher written mini-grants.

Three first grade teachers plan together using the expertise of the teachers in the most effective way for optimum reading growth. **Whole language literature and activities** utilizing writing activities are a major part of the beginning reading program. The **Headway Phonetic Program of Open Court**[6] is used for whole classroom instruction. One of the positive aspects of the program is student involvement with response cards, board work, and oral reading of words and sentences. In conjunction with this program, **a basal reading program, Houghton-Mifflin (1989)**[7], is used by the teacher with chart instruction and directed reading activities.

Second grade teachers review, and build on the skills taught in the first grade reading program. They also use the Houghton-Mifflin basal program and Headway (Open court) phonics, with more emphasis on reading comprehension and reading at an acceptable reading rate.

Writing activities are also an integral part of the whole language approach to reading and learning. Creative writing activities provide students with an active awareness of the printed word through the use of the **Power Paragraphs**[8] program and **Write On, Illinois!**[9] Several teachers also encourage students to keep journals in which students write daily.

Newspapers are utilized in the classrooms frequently, particularly when important world happenings touch the lives of students. **Newspapers in Education Week** has all classrooms doing extensive newspaper work. This work has led to the publishing of the ***Pioneer Times***, a monthly newspaper written and published by the students.

Students with learning disabilities or who are mentally handicapped may have reading instruction in their regular classroom or in the **special education resource** room, depending on their special needs. Children of average ability, but who are having difficulty in reading, are usually eligible for **Chapter I** reading assistance. Chapter I provides thirty minutes of reading instruction daily, which is correlated with the classroom reading program.

The recent addition of a **computer laboratory** gives every student access to computer assisted instruction with software for reading activities and content area reading.

All in all, **the reading program is focused on the multisensory, multifaceted approach used by talented and dedicated classroom teachers**. First, second, and third grade teachers use the entire three hours of the morning session for reading and language arts, with the exception of a fifteen minute morning break, and a twenty minute music class given twice a week. In addition to the morning instruction, a story hour of 15-20 minutes takes place immediately after lunch.

Bibliography for Pioneer School Reading Components

1. **TESA (Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement)**
   Phil Delta Kappa
   Eighth & Union Streets
   Box 789
   Blooming, IN 47402

2. **Reading Is Fundamental**
   Smithsonian Institution
   600 Maryland Ave. S. W.
   Room 500
   Washington, D. C. 20560

3. **Books and Beyond, Inc.**
   Solana Beach School District
   309 N. Rios Avenue
   Solana Beach, California 92075

4. **Junior Great Books**
   40 East Huron Street
   Chicago, Illinois

5. **Poetry Works**
   Modern Curriculum Press
   P.O. Box 360619
   Cleveland, Ohio 44136

6. **Headway Phonics Program**
   Open Court Publishing Company
   P.O. Box 599
   Peru, Illinois 61354

7. **Houghton-Mifflin**
   1900 S. Batavia Avenue
   Geneva, Illinois 60134

8. **Write For Power with Enchiridion**
   The Power of Language/The Language of Power
   by J. E. Sparks
   Communication Associates
   2160 Century Park East #201 North
   Los Angeles, California 90067

9. **Write On, Illinois 1991**
   Illinois State Board of Education
   100 North First Street
   Springfield, Illinois 62777-0001

NRSSC PRESENTATION:
Exemplary Program Competition
Award Winner
Presenter: Carl Cherrie
Co-Presenter: Jerry W. Bunt
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am-12:00pm

Jerry W. Bunt, Coordinator
Substance Abuse Program
Princeton High School
Princeton, IL 61356

PRINCETON TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL SUBSTANCE ABUSE PROGRAM

The Princeton, Illinois Program, although only 3 years old, is a role model of the recommended development of a comprehensive rural community substance abuse program, using schools as the driving force to effectively unite the total community.

Due to community-directed grassroots involvement by parents and school personnel and to the unique management style utilized by the Coordinator and Steering Committee members to market the program, community involvement includes the City Council, Chamber of Commerce, Police, Sheriff, State Police, States Attorney, Child Protection, Ministers, Hospital, service providers, Senior Citizens Center, employers, Metro Center, Extension Service, agencies/organizations, and news media with six separate school districts in and around Princeton.

Goals and objectives are determined via broad-based community planning with strong emphasis on youth.

The Steering Committee provides effective direction solidly assisted by subcommittees.

Program components include:

GOAL #1: Assist students in developing positive attitudes and beliefs to effectively make decisions not to inappropriately use alcohol and other drugs.

OBJECTIVE: Develop and implement a prevention model with appropriate curriculum materials as a part of a comprehensive health education curriculum with in-service training for teachers.

OBJECTIVE: Select and train 100-150 grade 7-12 student LifeSavers as role models, peer helpers, and for appropriate program activities.

ACTIVITIES: Select/develop comprehensive health curriculum and supplement with "Here's Looking At You, 2000". Provide AIDS special lessons and for Special Education students. In-service staff.

Select and train students for CLOWN Programs, role modeling, peer helping, leadership. Provide alternative social activities, Big Brother/Big Sister Program, Senior Citizens visits, student orientation, D.A.R.E. role modeling.

GOAL #2: Positively change the attitude and behavior of our student athletes regarding use of drugs/substances, including steroids.

OBJECTIVE: Develop a Sports Drug Program which includes steroids education.

ACTIVITIES: Develop plan; train staff, athletes and parents; execute plan.

GOAL #3: Positively change the future behavior of students who are inappropriately involved with alcohol and other drugs and violate the school's discipline or athletic policies.

OBJECTIVE: Expand the Student Assistance Program to service students via a non-punitive basis.

ACTIVITIES: In-service staff and develop referral system; communicate effectively.

GOAL #4: Assist parents and families in developing attitudes, beliefs, and practices resulting in no substance abuse and positive role models.

OBJECTIVE: Provide parent programs per identified needs; improve parenting skills emphasizing strong parent bonding and family norms against teenage drug use.

ACTIVITIES: Provide series of parent discussion groups stressing communication, skills and attitude.

GOAL #5: Assist the community in providing an environment resulting in no substance abuse.

OBJECTIVE: Coordinate community activities, common calendar, avoid duplicated effort, encourage mutual support, and jointly plan and implement.

ACTIVITIES: Meet the Council of Community Services; letter to agencies/organizations; focus efforts via 1 total program.

GOAL #6: Create a drug-free workplace to provide an appropriate place for our students upon leaving school.

OBJECTIVE: Assist employers in dealing with substance abuse problems.

Help employers develop a Wellness Program for employees - emphasizing prevention.

ACTIVITIES: Continue year 2 of 3-year plan for 10 company Consortium Employee Assistance Program (with Chamber of Commerce). Train supervisors and employees, offer E.A.P. services.

GOAL #7: Assist Senior Citizens, as role models for youth, to reject substance abuse and properly use prescription drugs.

OBJECTIVE: Provide programs for Senior Citizens to reject substance abuse and properly use prescription drugs. Provide training programs for those who provide care to Senior Citizens in the areas of substance abuse.

ACTIVITIES: Plan and implement: Gatekeeper Program; Brown Bag Program; assist ministers for improved skills; Fun Days; Wellness Program; train service providers.

GOAL #8: Appropriately assess the effectiveness of the "total" comprehensive substance abuse program.

OBJECTIVE: Design an appropriate instrument/procedure, assess the program, and re-vamp program as needed for greatest effectiveness.

ACTIVITIES: Establish committee; select assessment tool; identify target group(s); assess program; improve program with data.

Students are geographically isolated and rural services are not available other than occasional structured programs. Substance abuse needs are more serious due to the lack of services. Our small staff of counselors and administrators has varied responsibilities and limited expertise on substance abuse. Strained financial burdens necessitate specialized outside assistance.

A real difference in our program, compared with urban locations, rests with the interpersonal relationships involving the program participants. Small communities cannot afford school or community personnel for specialty programs. Therefore, we must deal directly with school administrators, counselors, and teachers along with community plant managers, personnel directors, law enforcement, government officials, parents, senior citizens, etc. who already have more responsibilities than most can adequately handle. We must also compete for student's time. Therefore, the need for the program and it's benefit to the community must be convincingly marketed before anyone will "buy into the program" and become an active participant. This applies to all ages from school children up through senior citizens. Also, smaller communities simply don't have as many persons to chose from (as an urban area). We must be especially credible.

There are 5 separate school districts that feed students into Princeton High School. These schools are totally separate with separate Boards of Education. Effectively bringing together 6 separate districts for any cooperative venture is difficult. Effective communication and diplomacy are required.

The community lacks concentrated expertise and coordinated programs. Also, organizations working independently of everyone else and "getting the credit" seems to prevail in smaller communities.

Local fund raising is quite difficult with "pet projects" competing for similar donors.

Effective interpersonal skills along with marketing techniques and an understanding of small community philosophy/psychology will best equip one to be successful.

The program includes the community in a significant way:
EMPLOYEE PROGRAM
* 10 businesses (2200 employees) currently served in consortium Employee Assistance Program: 3-year pilot model for Illinois. Awarded Department of Labor Grant - 1 of 23 nationally.
* Employee Wellness.

SENIOR CITIZENS PROGRAMS

* Lieutenant Governor's Office granted us a contract to develop innovative programs.
* Programs: Brown Bag, Fun Days, for service providers, substance abuse and proper use of medication.

PARENTING EDUCATION

* Provided 6 programs co-sponsored by P.T.O., attended by 50-150.
* Based on identified parent needs.
* Small discussion parent groups provided 1990-91.
* Excellent evaluations.

CHURCHES

* Developing programs to improve ministers substance abuse knowledge, counseling skills and church programs.
* Developing "Gatekeeper Program" via churches.

COMMUNITY COORDINATION

Unite all agencies/groups who provide substance abuse activities:

* Avoid duplication of effort.
* Save dollars.
* Gain mutual support for each program.
* Unify for greater effectiveness.
* Program committees represent total community.

The following data is currently corroborating program success: Statistical data indicating reduction of student alcohol/other drug use: grade 7-12.

	*1985	**1990
Alcohol	66%	51%
Marijuana	24%	9%

* 1985 Alcohol/Drug Survey, grades 7-12
** 1990 "I Say" Alcohol/Drug Survey, grades 7-12
Data indicates a dramatic decline.

If another rural community wanted to implement a program similar to ours, the following considerations may prove of value:

-Challenge of unifying schools and community into one total program.

-Due to our school/community commitment, we concentrate very little on limitations. Basically, we decide what we want to do and then do it with mutual support.

-Coordinator must assume responsibility (with school/community advisory) for total program: Coordinator is part-time. Full-time could enhance the program.

-Grant Writing/Fund Raising: Well written funding requests by Coordinator and fund raising by Coordinator and committees are imperative to program survival.

-An effective management style including personal and marketing considerations are needed by Coordinator and "key players" to encourage school/community persons to "buy in". People don't become involved just because it is a "good cause".

-Effective coordination and communication is needed for planning, implementation and evaluation procedures. Coordinator and key persons are responsible.

Current program funding includes:

$ 9,600	Local/school contributions
11,027	Drug-Free Schools Grant
80,000	Department of Labor Grant - Employee Assistance Program
2,000	Area II Local Assistance Grant
61,510	ISBE Alcohol and Drug Education Initiative
10,000	City of Princeton

Considerable positive recognition has been afforded our program including:

- Illinois Governor's "Drug Free Recognition Program Award" from former Governor James Thompson and State Superintendent of Education Robert Leiniger (October, 1990).
- "Outstanding Illinois Prevention Program Award" from Department of Alcoholism and Substance Abuse (August, 1990).
- National recognition via feature story entitled "Prevention Programs Can Work in Small Communities" in Illinois Prevention Resource Centers' Prevention Forum, Volume 10, Issue 4, July, 1990. (Story provides total program information involving schools with total community.)
- Commendation letter from Lieutenant Governor George H. Ryan.
- Commendation letter from William T. Atkins, Director of Illinois Department of Alcoholism and Substance Abuse.
- Special commendation to the Coordinator by the Princeton Chamber of Commerce.
- Awarded $1,000 contract by Lieutenant Governor's Office to pilot innovative Substance Abuse Program for senior citizens. (Selected due to successful community efforts.)
- Coordinator was nominated by former Lieutenant Governor George H. Ryan and selected as one of 100 from a field of 300 to represent the State of Illinois as a delegate to Illinois Assembly on the Prevention of Alcohol and Drug Abuse in Springfield (March, 1990). Purpose of the Assembly: To recommend future Drug Abuse Plan for state of Illinois.
- Don Allen, Princeton Chamber of Commerce, was nominated by Illinois Department of Alcoholism and Substance abuse and selected to attend the same Illinois Assembly.
- Coordinator and Don Allen received scholarships to attend May, 1990 Social Policy for the 1990's - 6th Annual D.A.S.A. Conference on Prevention.
- Employee Assistance Program:
  A. Successful Department of Labor E.A.P. Grant ($70,000 in year one and $80,000 in year two). Grants authored by Jerry Bunt, Don Allen, and Debbie Sudtelgte. We were one of 23 communities selected nation-wide.
  B. Received national recognition for model E.A.P. Consortium via news stories in 4 national magazines:
     Benefits Today, EAPA Exchange, Crain's Chicago Business and Commerce Magazine.
  C. Princeton community was honored by former Lieutenant Governor George H. Ryan and Representative Richard Mautino by a recognition visit and reception for Princeton's leadership in community involvement with the E.A.P.
- Don Allen, Jerry Bunt, Ron DeBrock, Emilise Baughman, John Thompson, Brian Turpen and Barbara LaVelle (representing the program from Chamber of Commerce, news media, service providers, Sheriff's Office, City of Princeton and program administration) were nominated and selected to attend the Illinois Valley Assembly on the Prevention of Alcohol and Drug Abuse (September, 1990). Purpose: To recommend future Drug Abuse Plan for the region.

The Stanford University College of Medicine recently completed an on-site visit of the program to learn more about the community development approach.

Our motto is "Together We Can Make A Difference."

NRSSC PRESENTATION:
Exemplary Program Competition
Award Winner
Presenter: David Liesse
Co-Presenter: William Pearch
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am-12:00pm

COLLABORATIVE SHARING: AN OPPORTUNITY TO PROMOTE ACADEMIC EXCELLENCE AND FINANCIAL SAVINGS

Wenona Community Unit District #1 and Lostant Community High School District #400 are two very small rural school districts, in the adjacent counties of Marshall and LaSalle, in central Illinois, with high school enrollments of 76 and 58 students respectively. Located only six miles apart from each other, both communities display tremendous pride in their comprehensive educational programs, and both communities nurture a natural rivalry second to none.

But like many small rural school districts across the state, Wenona and Lostant were increasingly finding themselves facing what seemed to be insurmountable financial constraints. These constraints were imposed by decreasing farmland assessments (the lifeline of rural school districts), inadequate and inequitable state funding, and legislatively mandated educational reform initiatives and accountibility movements requiring the implementation of under-funded or worse yet, non-funded programs.

Both districts jointly attempted to counter their inevitable individual demises by calling for a three way consolidation with a neighboring district five miles to the north. When this consolidation failed to materialize, both districts sought sizeable and controversial tax referendums for their educational funds. Wenona, on a second attempt, passed a $1.25 increase driving their total rate to $4.65, and Lostant passed a $1.50 cent increase which brought their total rate up to $5.17. But, as farm assessments continued to drop, the referendums would serve only as temporary stopgap measures.

Realizing some degree of urgency, both boards of education expressed a desire to jointly develop a viable alternative to forced consolidation - an alternative that would create a more effective and efficient school system. In addressing this mandate, the strengths and desires of both communities and school systems were assessed and re-assessed.

While opinions and interpretations widely diverged regarding what the alternative should be, agreement was reached that many of the programs needed to be restructured making them useful, meaningful, and motivational. Secondly, the alternative needed to retain the responsiveness of both school systems, while attempting to increase services, programs, and achieve the much sought after "economy" often associated with size.

Therefore, the primary objectives in designing the collaborative sharing program were to bring about 1) better academic programs, 2) increased educational opportunities, 3) equity and justice in the tax burden, and 4) greater economic efficiency. To adequately accomplish these objectives, the new program needed to 1) broaden the variety of subjects, courses, services and activities offered; 2) decrease unnecessary duplication of supplies and materials; 3) eliminate or minimize the existence of duplicate token facilities or programs, i.e., industrial arts, home economics, art, music, laboratories, libraries, etc.; and 4) reduce per pupil costs by increasing teacher-pupil ratios where possible.

In theory, if two or more school districts would agree to share their individual resources - including, students, faculty, finances, facilities, etc., the quality of their educational programs would greatly increase, and their individual per capita pupil costs would decrease. School districts entering into a multi-district, total sharing agreement would realize both economic and educational benefits. They would be able to offer either the same educational programs at a much lower cost, or better yet, much improved educational programs at the same cost.

In the formulation the program, the strengths and weaknesses of both districts' curricular offerings and facilities were carefully analyzed. Building on the identified strengths of the programs, Wenona was designated as the Math and Science center, and Lostant was designated as the English and Humanities center. Additionally, the vocational programs were equally divided and assigned to the site most appropriately equiped to offer the program(s).

To facilitate this arrangement, both districts reassigned a portion of their teaching staff to the other building, as determined by their teaching discipline and certification. For example, the Wenona English teacher was assigned to the Lostant site, and the Lostant Math teacher was assigned to the Wenona site. Even though reassignments were made, the home districts retained their administrative responsibilities to those teachers, including supervision, payment, tenure, etc.

As an untried program, questions of legality abounded. Legal issues and questions were referred to, researched, and addressed by legal counsel for avoidance of possible legal ramifications and non-compliance with the Illinois School Code. As issues were clarified and resolved, they were written into a comprehensive Intergovernmental Agreement; but, before ratifying the agreement, a committee consisting of the superintendents, school board members, two regional superintendents of schools, and school district attorneys met with the Illinois State Superintendent of Schools and his chief departmental officers.

Timing for this proposal was opportune. While the State was promoting reorganization and redistricting, the proposal presented itself as a creative and innovative alternative to forced consolidation.

After much debate and scrutiny, the State School Officials gave their approval. With their endorsement, came words of praise and encouragement for the creative and constructive risk-taking of the program.

After receiving State approval and acceptance, the program was presented to the faculties and staffs for further input and refinement. This step was extremely important. If total restructuring were to be simply thrust upon the staff, it would be extremely difficult to get the teachers excited about and involved in the concept. They would be void of any ownership in it.

Teachers have much to contribute to an effective learning environment through their strong leadership in emphasizing priorities, i.e., basic skills and academic success, having high expectations, creating a safe and orderly environment, etc. Therefore, it was imperative that the teachers feel ownership in the development and implementation of the program.

As one would expect, staff anxiety and apprehension was noted. Areas of concern to the faculties included 1) seniority and tenure rights, 2) administrative responsibility, and 3) the development and articulation of a unified curriculum, grading practice, and disciplinary program. To address these potential problems and concerns identified by the staff, committees and sub-committees were formed.

Before the Intergovernmental Agreement was formulated, open meetings were held in each community. At these meetings, staff and community members had the opportunity to make their concerns known about the proposed sharing program. Proponents of the collaborative program recognized that it would increase and improve academic opportunities and experiences for the students. Opponents pointed out a possible loss of local control and increased transportation costs which they found hard to justify fiscally.

Transportation of students between sites was one of the biggest parental concerns. Freshmen and sophomores were transported to the Lostant site in the morning, while the juniors and seniors were transported to Wenona. At noon the process was reversed with freshmen and sophomores in Wenona and the juniors and seniors in Lostant. After school all students returned to their home site.

Restructuring of transportation routes represented the only real cost increase. However, this partially state reimbursed, nominal increase, was dramatically offset by savings in instructional salaries and supplies. Wenona was able to gain considerable flexibility and control over its budget by reducing a number of its staff. Staff reductions reduced anticipated expenditures by $100,000. Lostant, likewise, realized a savings of approximately $40,000.

Parent advisory committees in both communities surveyed their constituents regarding implementing the collaborative sharing program. While the surveys showed overwhelming support for the program, opposition and resistance was noted on both Boards. Nevertheless, a majority of both Boards voted to implement the program in the fall of 1990.

As the new master schedule was developed, 16 new course offerings were incorporated, including both remedial and advanced placement courses, which individually neither district was previously able to offer. For the first time, students in both districts had an opportunity to select teachers, and teachers had an opportunity to teach in their area of specialization and interest. The competition created between the students and between the teachers was instrumental in improving the quality and mode of instruction.

The keys to a successful collaborative sharing program are many. First, restructuring requires commitments from many people. Both Boards and teaching staffs must demonstrate a desire and ability to work cohesively and the superintendents of both districts must be perceptive to the constraints and expectations of both boards. Any mistrust or lack of commitment toward the sharing program by any of these factions would weaken the program objectives and threaten its good effects.

Secondly, everyone involved must recognize that some degree of risk-taking is necessary. This realization is particularly important for boards and administrators, for they are primary players in setting the tone and modeling a risk-taking commitment. Thirdly, it is imperative that everyone involved in the school community be included in the decision-making process. Lastly, the primary focus must always be on the improvement of instruction and the improvement of student learning outcomes.

It appears evident that if the two boards of education are not operating in full accord, and not functioning as one, the two superintendents are caught in the middle. It is an obvious and a foregone conclusion that it is definitely easier to please a majority of seven board members than it is the majority of fourteen.

The greatest advantage of the collaborative sharing program was what it did for the students of both districts. By cooperating, the students were able to partake of a wider variety of teachers and experience a wider variety of teaching skills and specialties, and benefited from a more comprehensive curriculum. For the first time, the students had more input and power over their own learning with a variety of curriculum choices.

Since the inception of the collaborative sharing program, the public's confidence in the schools significantly increased. Polls of the parents perceptions revealed that they are generally pleased with the sharing program's progress and their children's performance. The public's confidence in its schools is vital, especially since public schools depend upon public support.

Parents, teachers, and students were asked to rate the extent to which they felt the sharing program was achieving its objective. The majority of those surveyed felt that the sharing program provided additional courses, multiple sections of selected core curricular courses, and improved the overall academic program.

Early fears by residents of both communities that transportation would represent an unnecessary and expensive hardship were reversed. The majority indicated that the transportation routes operated efficiently.

The most cited advantage of the sharing program was the social benefits created for the students. Exposure to students of both schools virtually doubled the contacts and promoted generally positive relationships. But most importantly, the plan allowed two rural school districts to retain their identities while improving their academic programs and fiscal stature.

NRSSC POSTER SESSION
PRESENTER: PAT KELLEY
CO-PRESENTER: MARY JEAN SANSPREE
DAY: SUNDAY, MARCH 17
TIME: 10:30 am - 12:00 pm

Preparing Personnel to Serve Students with Visual Handicaps in Rural Areas: Two Preservice Alternatives

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Running head: Rural preservice alternatives

Preparing Personnel to Serve Students with Visual Handicaps in Rural Areas: Two Preservice Alternatives

There is a critical national shortage of teachers prepared to work with the blind and visually impaired learner (Bina, 1987). As of 1987, 45 states offered vision-specific teacher certifications, although the requirements vary greatly (Huebner & Strumwasser, 1987).

> The certified teacher of the visually handicapped, in addition to all of the skills and knowledge implied by having a regular teaching certificate, understands the ramifications of a visual impairment and can recommend or make adaptations intended to reduce its impact. This educator can teach and produce braille, is a specialist in visual development, and can assess the need for and provide instruction in the use of sophisticated computer technology.Orientation and mobility instructors are specialists trained to teach visually handicapped students how to become oriented to their home, school, and community and how to travel in those environments in a safe, efficient, and graceful manner. The use of the cane, special low vision aids, and/or electronic equipment for travel purposes may be an essential part of orientation and mobility instruction. (TEA, 1989, pV-162)

Low enrollment of future teachers and high university costs have led to the demise of many programs leaving less than 30 teacher training programs in the United States. We are confronted with a shrinking professional population and an ever growing student population.

This situation is further aggravated by the rural character of many southern states. Alabama and Texas are considered rural since Alabama has seven persons per square mile, with nine metropolitan areas, and Texas has 45 persons per square mile, with 25 metropolitan areas. Students with visual impairments are widely scattered over a large geographic area with the greatest number of children residing outside of urban centers. With many pupils unserved, the recruitment and retention of certified personnel becomes an educational problem in rural areas. As an example, the ratios of trained teachers of the visually impaired to the number of students who are visually impaired in selected southern states is illustrated in Figure 1 below.

Insert Figure 1 here

The personnel preparation demands placed upon existing teacher training programs has intensified. Colleges and universities, therefore, must respond to the paucity of trained educators in creative and innovative ways. The National Rural Research Consortium recommends facilitating university offerings in rural areas as a strategy to retrain teachers (Helge, 1983). Studies suggest that local personnel who receive on the job training are those most likely to remain in rural areas (Bina, 1981).

Distance education can play a very important role in rural teacher preparation. As well as serving as a vehicle for delivery of services to visually impaired children, distance models appear to be especially well-suited to the problem of personnel preparation in rural states.

Distance education is distinguished from campus-based instruction by the separation of the pupil and professor, the utilization of media, and the provision for two-way dialogue. Like traditional programs, however, external programs are also under the control of an institution of higher education (Keegan, 1980). Distance education is advantageous to both the practicing professional as well as the university. Benefits of distance education to institutions, as identified by Best (1989), are cost effectiveness, access to students, and minimized staffing difficulties. Teachers are pleased that certification courses are locally available thus reducing travel and disruption of family and personal obligations. An additional advantage to those teachers already instructing visually impaired students without the requisite training is the opportunity to immediately translate theory into practice with their pupils. Furthermore, these individuals are knowledgeable about local community resources as well as the informal ecological systems operating in their community (Sowell,Correa,and Wardell, 1987). Helge (1983) stated that knowledge about rural relationships is vital to optimum service delivery. Many of these educators also have a commitment to remain in their communities thereby providing continuity of services.

For a variety of reasons, many visually impaired and blind children are often without direct services or are inappropriately placed and subsequently inadequately served (Bickford & Maron, 1988). The Vision Outreach Project (VOP) at UAB and the Outreach

Program at Texas Tech are committed to remedying this problem in Alabama and Texas and their surrounding states.

The primary mission of both programs is to provide a preservice model for training in visual impairments to persons in rural areas. Neither university has the advantage of existing distance education departments. This objective is accomplished by each university through two diverse strategies. The University of Alabama at Birmingham utilizes video taped lessons in conjunction with on-campus classes, while Texas Tech uses an outreach training model.

The distance model works effectively in Alabama and Texas since both states already have education service regions. With this regional concept as a guide, students are in close proximity to the equipment, services, and materials provided by regional offices or other local facilities. The regional centers serve as a repository for university supplied reference and research materials that are required for completion of study modules or outreach classes.

Students in both universities enroll in graduate degree programs or they add an endorsement in visual impairments to a graduate teaching certificate. Eighteen quarter hours of credit constitutes the specialized training in visual impairments in Alabama while twenty-one semester hours are required in Texas. At UAB, coursework in visual impairments is distributed across six classes and, at Texas Tech, coursework in visual impairments is distributed across seven classes. In addition, Texas Tech has an orientation and mobility program which includes some of the vision sequence courses plus four advanced orientation and mobility courses and an additional practicum and internship. Part-time students have traditionally characterized the student population enrolled in the visually impaired certification and degree programs at UAB and Texas Tech. The majority of these individuals are already employed as teachers of the visually impaired. Therefore, the required internship hours are individualized for each person. Supervision is provided by a faculty member; and, when locally available, a certified vision specialist. The faculty supervisor will travel to the student's community for regularly scheduled observation. Course requirements for certification, including practicum and internship,at UAB and Texas Tech are listed in Figure 2.

Insert Figure 2 here

Implementation of the UAB program was through a university grant for production of a pilot video module. Strategies and costs of providing a distance model for teacher training were analyzed to quantify the necessity of such a model. This program supplements a traditional campus-based class by adding "expert" information via video. This format is also being utilized in an outreach project conducted by the University of South Carolina (Parsons, 1986). Figure 3 is included to describe the steps which are utilized in developing video modules, distance training programs, and the method of distribution of books and modules.

Insert Figure 3 here

The course content and requirements are similar to traditional on-campus instruction. Video taped cassettes can be mailed to the students along with study guides containing assignments, an evaluation component, and a listing of local resources appropriate to the content of the video tape. For teachers completing the Master's degree requirements, weekend, off-campus and summer classes are readily available.

The Texas Tech program involves the transporting of the instructor and materials to a rural region, where classes are to be held. Recruitment of students is done by the local Education Service Centers (ESC) requesting the classes. Financial support for the coursework and travel involved is provided through a federal grant as well as state funds for the visually handicapped. Approval for course credit is obtained through the College of Continuing Education and Graduate School of the university. Once arrangements have been made by the local ESC, and approvals are given by the university, classes are scheduled. Students receive instruction from the same professors that teach on-campus courses and receive on-campus credit for the coursework. The process of the development of the Texas Tech outreach course is included in Figure 4.

Insert Figure 4 here

The UAB and Texas Tech models have and will increase the availability of certified teachers in regions of Alabama, Texas and the surrounding states where presently there are few trained personnel.

The UAB and Texas Tech programs can have an impact on the delivery of services to visually impaired and blind students in their rural regions. This is illustrated by the numbers of students trained in both programs as shown in Figure 5.

Insert Figure 5 here

These projects have the potential of meeting the training needs of rural teachers in an economical fashion. Professionals have access to coursework previously unavailable to them. Cost effectiveness, coupled with increased student enrollment, ensures the continuation of these programs The opportunity for replication by other institutions of higher education is also possible. With an increase in the number of qualified teachers and orientation and mobility specialists, visually impaired and blind students in local education agencies in rural areas will have the opportunity to receive quality services.

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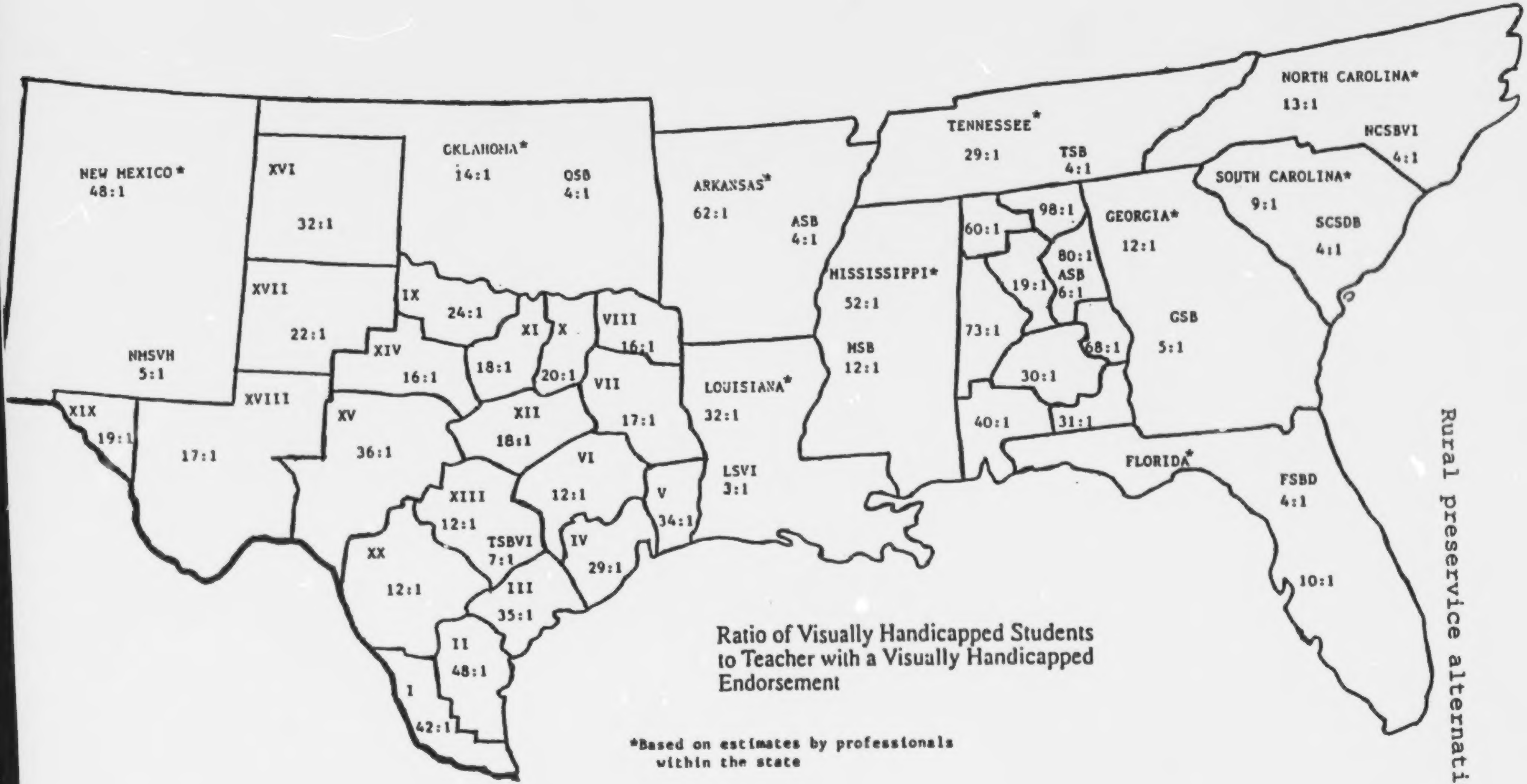
Figure 1 The ratios of trained teachers of the visually impaired to the number of students who are visually impaired in selected southern states.


NEW MEXICO*
48:1
NMSVH
5:1
XVI
32:1
XVII
22:1
XVIII
17:1
XIX
19:1
OKLAHOMA*
14:1
OSB
4:1
IX
24:1
XIV
16:1
XI
18:1
X
20:1
VIII
16:1
VII
17:1
XV
36:1
XII
18:1
VI
12:1
V
34:1
XIII
12:1
TSBVI
7:1
IV
29:1
XX
12:1
III
35:1
II
48:1
I
42:1
ARKANSAS*
62:1
ASB
4:1
LOUISIANA*
32:1
LSVI
3:1
MISSISSIPPI*
52:1
MSB
12:1
TENNESSEE*
29:1
TSB
4:1
60:1
98:1
80:1
ASB
6:1
19:1
73:1
68:1
30:1
40:1
31:1
GEORGIA*
12:1
GSB
5:1
NORTH CAROLINA*
13:1
NCSBVI
4:1
SOUTH CAROLINA*
9:1
SCSDB
4:1
FLORIDA*
FSBD
4:1
10:1

Ratio of Visually Handicapped Students to Teacher with a Visually Handicapped Endorsement

*Based on estimates by professionals within the state

Figure 2 Course requirements for certification, including practicum and internship,at UAB and Texas Tech.

Courses for Certification

	Vision certification		Orientation & Mobility
Course title	UAB	TTU	TTU
Nature & Needs/	X		
Progs. & Services		X	X
Methods & Materials	X	X	X
Anatomy & Physiol/	X		
Physical Aspects		X	X
Braille/Communication	X	X	
Basic O&M	X	X	X
Practicum	300 hrs	120 hrs	120 hrs + 350 internship
Consulting w/ Parents		X	
Int. O&M seminar			X
Int. O&M skills			X
Adv. O&M seminar			X
Adv. O&M skills			X
Total hours	18	21	30

Figure 3 The steps which are utilized in developing video modules, distance training programs, and the method of distribution of books and modules

Video training module development

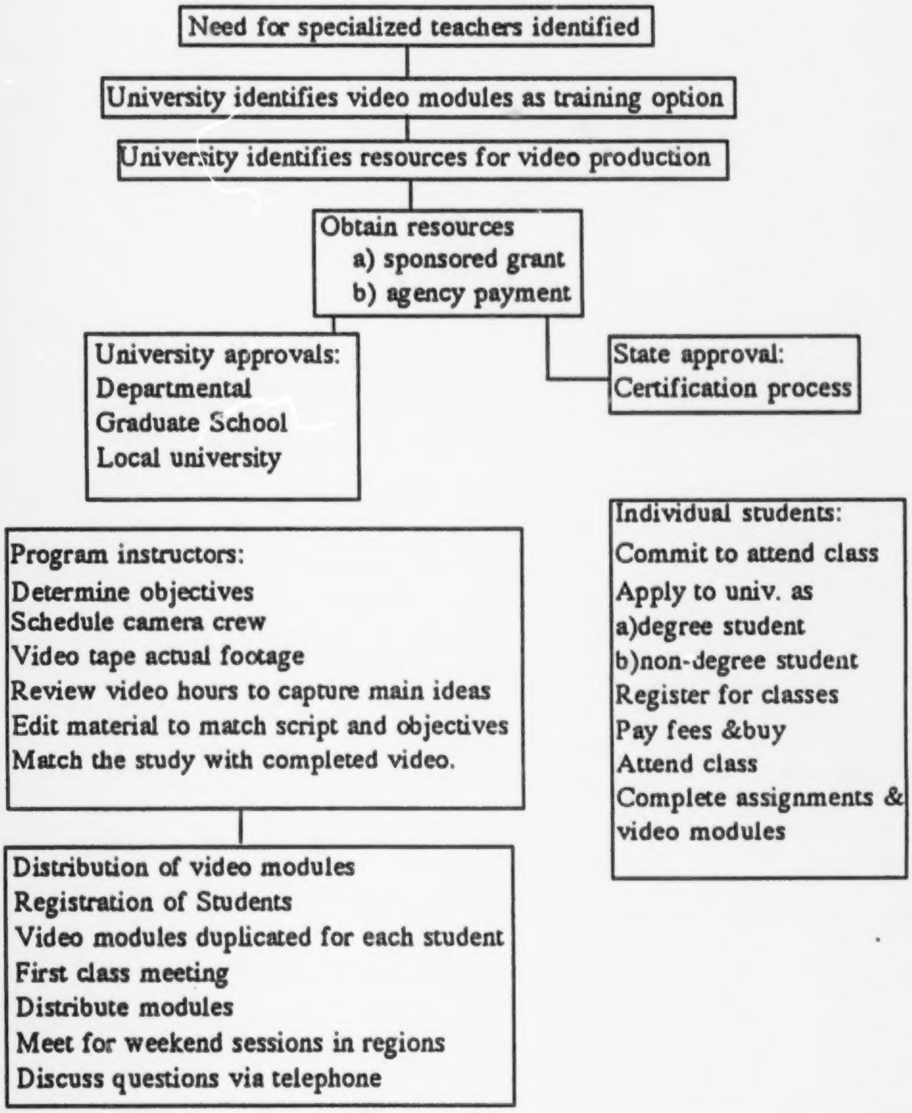

Need for specialized teachers identified
University identifies video modules as training option
University identifies resources for video production
Obtain resources
a) sponsored grant
b) agency payment
University approvals:
Departmental
Graduate School
Local university
State approval:
Certification process
Program instructors:
Determine objectives
Schedule camera crew
Video tape actual footage
Review video hours to capture main ideas
Edit material to match script and objectives
Match the study with completed video.
Individual students:
Commit to attend class
Apply to univ. as
a)degree student
b)non-degree student
Register for classes
Pay fees &buy
Attend class
Complete assignments &
video modules
Distribution of video modules
Registration of Students
Video modules duplicated for each student
First class meeting
Distribute modules
Meet for weekend sessions in regions
Discuss questions via telephone

Figure 4 The process of the development of the Texas Tech off-campus outreach courses is included in Figure 4.

Outreach training development

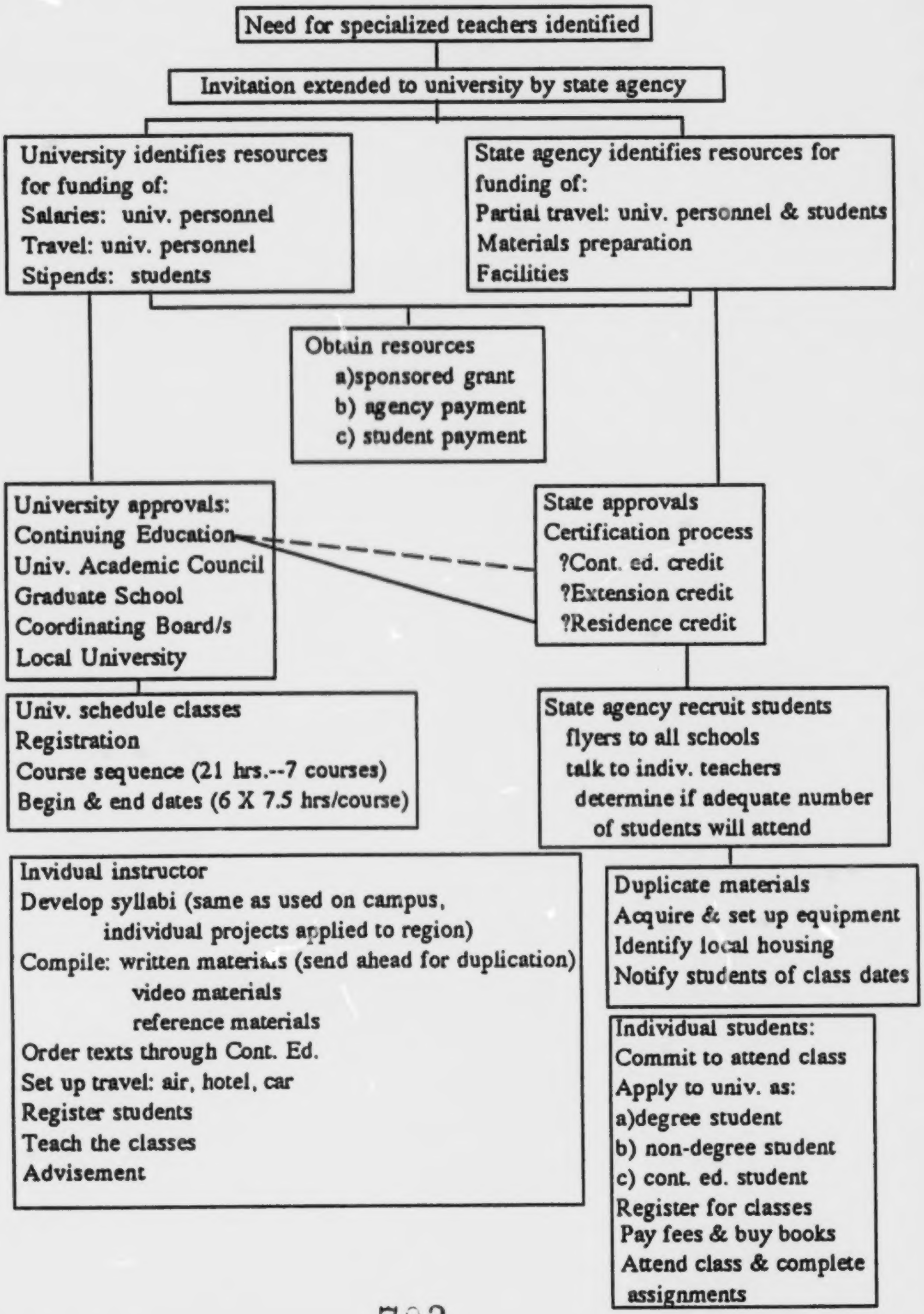

Need for specialized teachers identified
Invitation extended to university by state agency
University identifies resources for funding of:
Salaries: univ. personnel
Travel: univ. personnel
Stipends: students
State agency identifies resources for funding of:
Partial travel: univ. personnel & students
Materials preparation
Facilities
Obtain resources
a)sponsored grant
b) agency payment
c) student payment
University approvals:
Continuing Education
Univ. Academic Council
Graduate School
Coordinating Board/s
Local University
State approvals
Certification process
?Cont. ed. credit
?Extension credit
?Residence credit
Univ. schedule classes
Registration
Course sequence (21 hrs.--7 courses)
Begin & end dates (6 X 7.5 hrs/course)
State agency recruit students
flyers to all schools
talk to indiv. teachers
determine if adequate number of students will attend
Invidual instructor
Develop syllabi (same as used on campus, individual projects applied to region)
Compile: written materials (send ahead for duplication)
video materials
reference materials
Order texts through Cont. Ed.
Set up travel: air, hotel, car
Register students
Teach the classes
Advisement
Duplicate materials
Acquire & set up equipment
Identify local housing
Notify students of class dates
Individual students:
Commit to attend class
Apply to univ. as:
a)degree student
b) non-degree student
c) cont. ed. student
Register for classes
Pay fees & buy books
Attend class & complete assignments

Figure 5 The numbers of students trained in both programs.

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN EACH PROGRAM

YEAR	TEXAS TECH OUTREACH VH	TEXAS TECH OUTREACH O&M	TEXAS TECH ON-CAMPUS VH	TEXAS TECH ON-CAMPUS O&M	UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA-BIRMINGHAM
1979-80	Region XIX 14	--------	4	--------	5
1980-81	Region VIII 16	--------	11	--------	7
1981-82	Region I 16 Region IX 4	--------	8	--------	16
1982-83	Region XIV 9	--------	11	--------	9
1983-84	Region XVI 14	--------	10	--------	7
1984-85	Region VI 10	Region I 11 Region VIII 4	11	4	10
1985-86	Region XVIII 10 Region XIV 8	Region I 8 Region VIII 4	9	8	11
1986-87	Region III 22	Region I 6	6	6	12
1987-88	Region XX 23	Region XVI 4	6	6	7
1988-89	Region X 31	Region XIX 7	6	5	11
1989-90	Region XVI 11	Region XX 9	23	6	9
1990-91	Region IV 15	Region III 6	9	4	5

Author note:

Mary Jean Sanspree is an instructor in the Special Education Program for the Visually Impaired, School of Education, University of Alabama at Birmingham. Pat Kelley is a Professor in the Special Education Department, School of Education, Texas Tech University.

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: JoAnne Martin-Reynolds
Co-Presenter: Bill Reynolds
Rodney W. Bauer
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

JoAnne Martin-Reynolds, Bill
Reynolds & Rodney W. Bauer
529 Education Bldg
Bowling Green St University
Bowling Green, Ohio 43403

A Case Study of Perceptions of Student Character Development in a Small Rural School

The purpose of this paper is to describe and share the progress of an ongoing research project concerning attempts to define and ultimately measure student character development in rural school settings. To this end, information will be shared regarding the development of an instrument used to identify student character scores as perceived by teachers, peers and self. Due to the nature of this in-progress dissertation research study, however, not all of the data can be shared in its fullest detail.

The instrument and its data collection process present a practical way to begin to identify students who are perceived as role models for others as well as those who may be at-risk of dropping out of school. Variables such as grades earned in school and teacher appraisal (Barrington & Hendricks, 1989)[1] have been reported as predictors of dropouts and will be discussed in relation to character scores of students in this sample. In addition, student use of time will also be explored, especially as it relates to study habits, television viewing and working outside the home. Other studies comparing time use by age, sex and culture in relation to television viewing and study time may have some bearing on at-risk factors.[2] The paucity of research on early identification of dropouts has been lamented in the literature (Rumberger, 1987).[3] This study makes a contribution to this documented need.

Perspectives

Recently, many writers and researchers have begun to reexamine the complex questions of character development, moral education, ethics and values in the context of the school (Wynne, 1980; Sizer, 1984; Ryan, 1986, Wilson 1985; Bennett, 1985).[4] Professional organizations have also published reports and recommendations for reemphasizing moral education and character education in the schools. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (1988)[5] published a report "Moral Education in the Life of the School," outlining guidelines for school districts to follow in developing curriculum models and community support for making moral education a part of the school's program. The authors of the report note that the moral tone of the school is reflected in school climate (Power, 1983; Beane and Lipka, 1986, Mortimore and Sammons, 1987, Grant, 1988, Rutter, 1979)[6], in the hidden curriculum (Beane and Lipka, 1986), and should be examined and articulated in curriculum content, evaluation techniques and extracurricular activities (p. 32-33).[7] The National School Boards Association (1987)[8] has also published recommendations for schools and communities titled, "Building Character in the Public Schools: Strategies for Success."

If we ask why this is happening, we begin to find answers in diverse settings, but especially in areas concerning social issues and the economy. In 1986, James Wilson wrote the lead article in the 20th anniversary issue of **The Public Interest** entitled, "The Rediscovery of Character: Private Virtue and Public Policy," in which he expressed the public's deepening concern for the fostering of character in our citizens. A 1986 report by the Committee for Economic Development, commissioned by some of the country's top business leaders suggests that the inculcation of positive character traits constitutes an invisible curriculum that the schools are neglecting. According to the report, "Investing in Our Children," the schools frequently fail to stress even such basics as teamwork, honesty, self-discipline and reliability. The business world counts character and work habits as at least as important as academic skills in determining employability.

The employment issue is compounded by statistics that tell us that 13% of high school graduates can't read and write beyond the sixth grade level. Twenty-eight percent of 17-18 year olds do not complete high school. The American Association of School Administrators' 1989 publication, Teens in Crisis, reported that a quarter to one-half (depending on ethnic origins) of youth are dropping out of school. Of these, more than half will not be employed.

Are communities concerned? Yes. At the national level, the Gallup Poll found nearly 80% of the people in 1975 and 1980 in favor of teaching morals and moral behavior in the public schools. On the local level in the rural schools districts, we found evidence to support this same view in the schools, with 83% of the community respondents (N=1200) supporting teaching morals in the schools.

Background

Some background information on our research thus far is in order here so that the reader might be aware of related and pertinent information about this topic. What were some questions we asked of respondents in our previous samples? First of all, what school programs and policies could be identified as teaching values, either formally or informally? The districts' high schools' written policies (including discipline & student and teacher in-school behaviors) did include guidelines and statements concerning character, moral and civic education as did some curricular and extracurricular activities. (For more detailed information, see Martin-Reynolds, J. and Reynolds, B. "Character Development in Small Rural Schools, 1991 and "Extracurricular Activities in Rural Schools, 1990).[9]

Secondly, we explored the shared school and community expectations for adults and children in school. In looking closely at elementary programs in the three districts, the authors concluded that small rural schools and their staffs were able to address and communicate shared community/ school values and expectations to students through a number of direct and indirect approaches.[10]

Thirdly, what evidence was there of community attitudes toward school, teachers, and administrators? To check this, surveys of teachers (N=120), community members (N=1200) and students (N=700) in the three rural districts were conducted to determine perceptions of respondents as to their views of how the schools, teachers, administrators and students were perceived to reflect the traits of courage, justice, temperance and wisdom. On average, teachers agreed more so than the other two groups that the schools (85%), teachers (88%), administrators/school board members (79%) and students (64%) behaved in a manner reflecting courage, justice, temperance & wisdom.[11] Because the character traits embodied in the cardinal virtues have been deemed prerequisite to effective citizenship, they were selected as standards by which to identify behaviors and values appropriate for student character development.

The Study

The population for this particular phase of the study was the cohort group of students at one school district who were freshmen or sophomore students during the 1986-87 school year. The high school is a small high school of about 275 students in grades 9-12 in a rural area of northwest Ohio. The students responded to the Character Trait Questionnaire (CTQ), and completed general student surveys. The rate of response for students on the CTQ was 100%, with make-up tests provided. Follow-up interviews with students identified in the upper 20% and lower 30% of the group were conducted two years later, in 1989.

Instrument

The Character Trait Questionnaire (CTQ) was developed by three researchers, using a round robin technique to generate simulated situations so that subjects might contemplate the behaviors involved in making ethical and value judgments and decisions based on everyday occurances in school settings. The CTQ is based on operational examples of the four virtues selected to represent character as defined in the cardinal virtues, courage, justice, temperance and wisdom. The operational examples give specific behaviors that typify each virtue. Given the variable nature of stated individual ethical and value judgments and actual behaviors of individuals on a day to day basis,[12] the researchers felt it important to have the perceptions of others, in addition to self perception, to serve as an important check on the reliability of the character trait scores. Thus, the CTQ was developed to suit three different views, the self, the peer and the teacher formats.

Twelve hypothetical situations, three representing each of the four character traits, require the respondent to make a choice from a series of 4 responses. The responses were weighted 4,3,2,1, with 4 representing a high degree of the trait to 1 being the lowest. Each subject completes a self rating

and is then rated by three randomly selected peers and three of his/her teachers. Thus, the potential for a high score of 48 or a low score of 12 was possible for each rating. The Cronback Coefficient Alpha was used to test for internal consistency reliability with a population of junior high students (N=90) yielding coefficients of .55 for the CTQ-Self, 1.00 for the CTQ-Peer and .77 for the CTQ-Teacher forms (Hurley, 1991).
13

For interviewing purposes, the results of the self report, peer reports and teacher reports on the CTQ were used to identify two groups of students. The students who were rated in the top 20% were identified as having high character scores while the students who were rated in the lowest 30% were identified as having low character scores.

It was necessary to move to the lowest 30% rather than lowest 20% in order to have students in the sample. This group had experienced a number of missing students in the two years which had passed since the time of the first round of testing. As the principal noted, the instrument did its job well in being able to select those who were at-risk of leaving the school.

The Sample

The students in the follow-up interviews (N=33) were freshmen and sophomores at the time of the original study. It was decided to conduct in-depth interviews with the students in the upper and lower groups as a follow-up study two years later, when they were juniors and seniors to determine what factors might be identified for their own perception or their being perceived as having either high or low character scores.

The cut-off for high scores for self (upper 20% of respondents) was a score of 39 and above; for average peer score, 35.33 and above; for average teacher score, 35.2 and above. The cut-off for low scores for self (lower 30% of respondents) was a score of 34 and below; for average peer, 26.33 and below; for average teacher score, 28. In order to be placed in either the high or low group, students had to have been ranked in two of the three groups (self, peer or teacher).

All nine students in the original group of 9th graders ranked in the upper 20% were still in school as juniors. Only one of the seven original 9th graders ranked in the lower 20% was still in school. Of the lower 30%, two students were still in school. These three students became the lower group sample for the juniors. All ten students in the original group of 10th graders ranked in the upper 20% were still in school as seniors. Four of the original group of eight 10th graders ranked in the lower 20% were still in school. With the addition of those in the lower 30%, four more students were added to make a total of 8 seniors in the lower group sample. Thirteen were interviewed.

An in-depth interview was conducted using, among others, questions based on a national sample and survey involving time use diaries conducted by the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1985.[14] This sample was based on data collected in a national telephone survey (1981-82) of 300 households examining time use. Of the 400 children involved, 87 were in the age range of 15-17 year-olds. The questions used with the rural student interviews focused on self data, school data and home data. Sample questions included how students spent their time during a typical day, involvement in extracurricular activities, curfew times if any, relationships with parents, responsibilities at home, reasons for going to school, feelings about self and so on. This paper will examine student responses regarding use of time for the 2 groups.

Discussion

One of the research questions asked was: Is there a significant difference in use of time by students who are ranked as having high character scores and those ranked as having low character scores? As can be seen from Tables 1 through 6, students did not differ greatly on amount of time spent in various activities. However, the amount of time respondents reported that they spent studying and working did differ between the two groups. Those in the lower 30% reported spending on average about 55 minutes a day studying compared to 102 minutes for those students in the upper 20%. The data from the ISR sample reported approximately 30 minutes a day in study time for 15-17 year olds. The ISR research makes reference to comparative studies with Japanese children in this age group which note that they spend between 2 and 3 1/2 hours a day studying, indicating a cultural emphasis on academic achievement.[15]

The mean number of hours spent working outside the home for the 2 rural student groups indicated an average of 68 minutes per day for the lower 30% and 16 minutes per day for the upper 20%. There was no national data available for 15-17 year olds regarding time spent on the job, but tv viewing was fairly consistent with the students in the rural study and compared similarly with the Japanese data. Apparently, most students can find time to watch television.

Sex differences and sex role stereotyping could account for some of the variation in time use, especially in areas such as household chores and sports. The ISR sample indicated that the boys spent more time in sports and the girls more time in household chores. This does seem to be having some effect with the rural sample in household chores. The upper 20% group in both grades tended to be made up of approximately 80% girls while the lower 30% group tended to be approximately 50% girls, 50% boys. In the area of household chores, the upper group spent about 30 minutes more time than the lower group on a daily basis. Time spent in sports averaged about the same amount of time for each group.

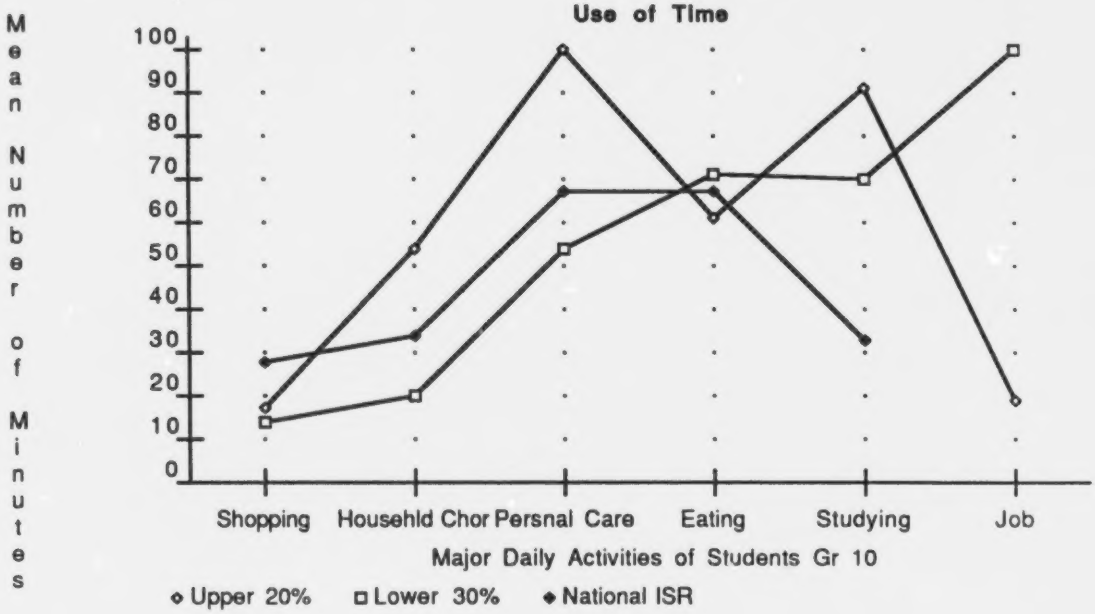
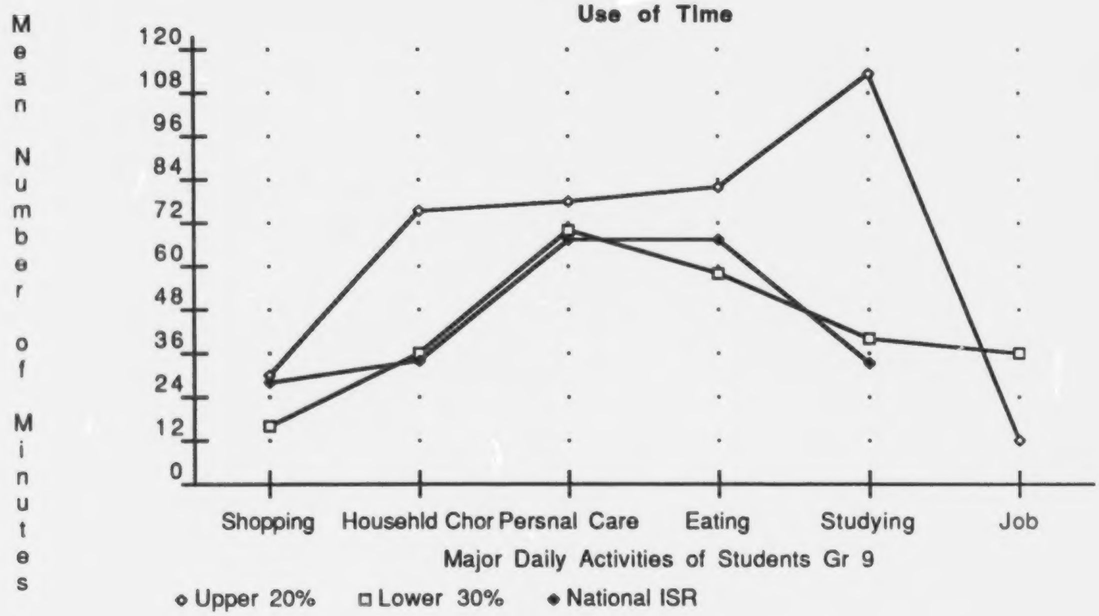


Table 1



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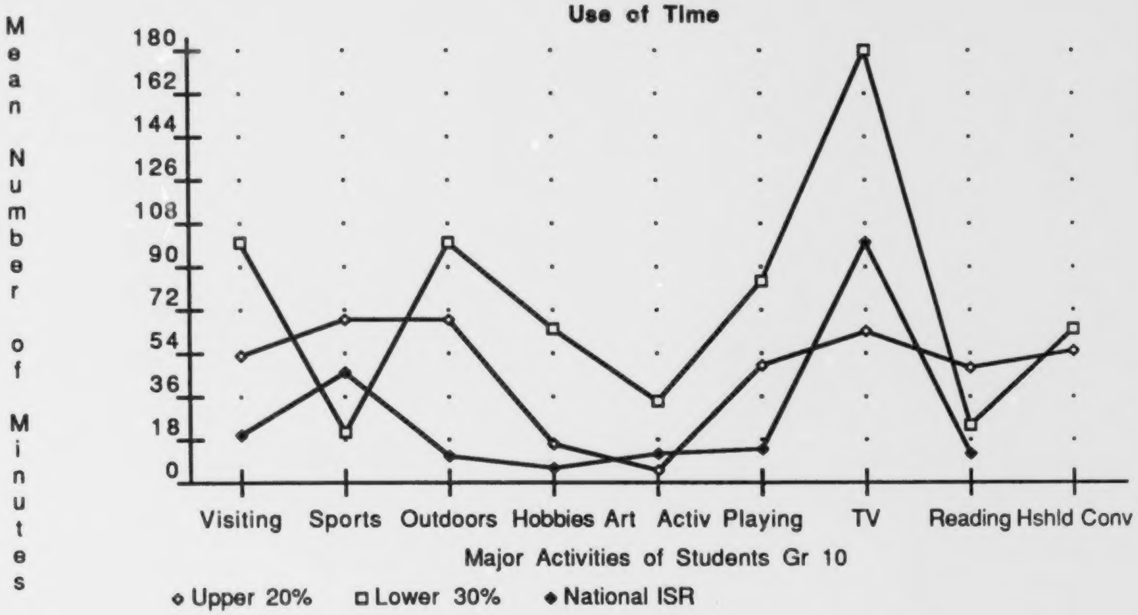

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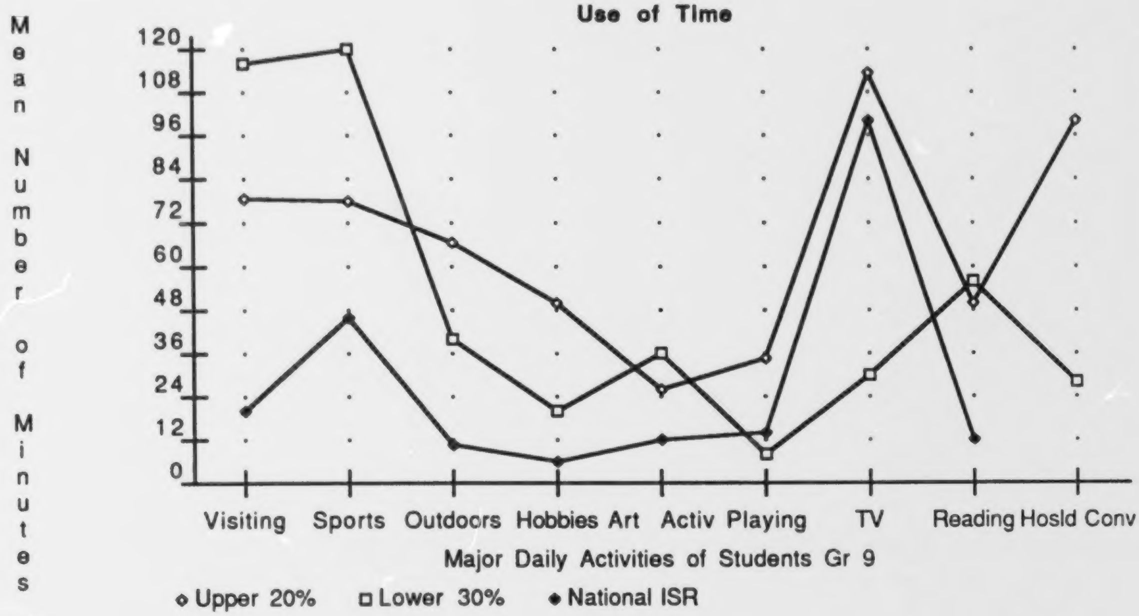

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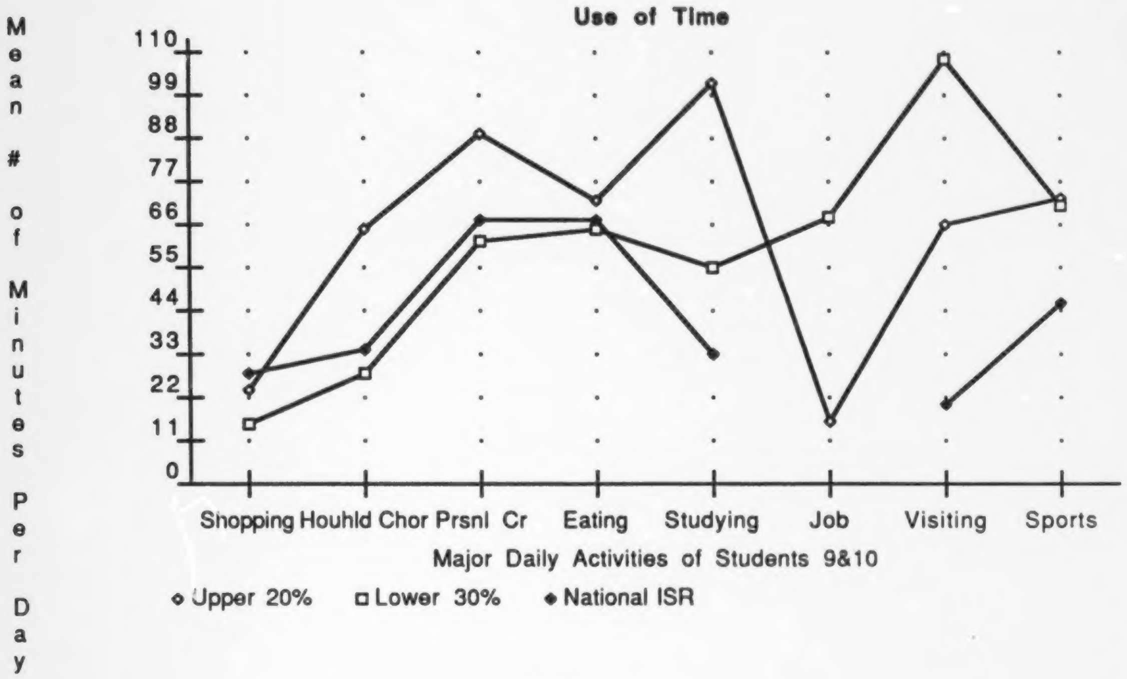

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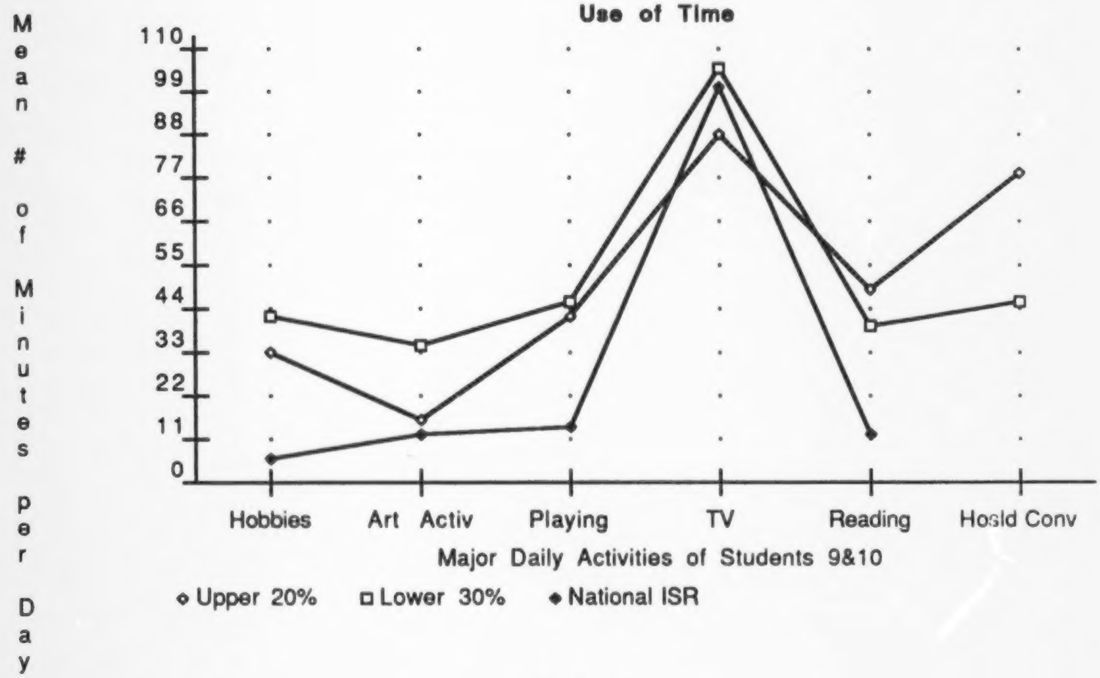

Table 6

In accordance with the literature, it was found that students in the upper group tended to have the higher mean grade point averages (3.40) and students in the lower group tended to have the lower mean grade point averages (1.91). The correlation between the character development score and grade point average was +.64, significant at the .001 level (Bauer, 1991).[16]

Conclusions

Are there links between perceptions of character development, school variables, home variables and personal variables? If so, what good is such information in dealing with at-risk individuals? This on-going study is just beginning to grapple with these questions. The associations between factors such as academic achievement, high and low character development scores, use of time, and so on appear to have some bearing on identification of key factors in high-risk individuals. Such early identification of at-risk students has many practical as well as humane outcomes for students and schools. If their identification can be accomplished early and intervention strategies can be determined to correct behavior patterns or otherwise intercede to change high-risk behaviors, then school personnel have a great stake in such an effort. Too often, school personnel are asked to deal with variables which cannot be readily changed such as cognitive ability or personality. It would be far better for schools and parents to work together to change behaviors regarding student use of time rather than spin our wheels trying to change the unchangeable.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Donald V. Cairns
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

Dr. Donald V. Cairns
Assistant Professor
West Texas State Univesity
Canyon, Texas

Rural Schools Reflect Loose-Tight Organizational Structure

Within recent years a body of research has emerged which indicates that schools having higher student outcomes exhibit four general characteristics. Schools that exhibited the characteristics of: (1) clearly stated goals, (2) rules fairly and consistently enforced, (3) regular and frequent evaluations of the teaching staff, and (4) administrative involvement in the curricular decisions of the school met the criteria of the effective schools research (Brookhover 1981; Brookhover and Lezotte 1979; Weber 1971; Maryland State Department of Education 1978, Rutter, Maughum, Mortimore, Ouston, and Smith 1979). These four general characteristics have been associated with the "effective schools movement".

These traits are characteristic of the bureaucratic scientific theories of organizations as postulated by Max Weber (1947), Fredrick Taylor, Henri Fayol, (Hanson 1985) Lyndall Urwick, and Luther Gulick (1937) and of the "effective schools research" but are not consistent with views of service organizations as developed by other theorists, e.g., Elton Mayo (social systems theory, 1933), Katz and Kahn (open system theory, 1966).

Effective school characteristics may be contrasted to the theory that school systems tend to be "loosely coupled", as theorized by Karl E. Weick (1976, 1982). Weick posited that schools are loosely coupled organizations having characteristics of unclear or ambiguous goals, few rules or rules not being followed, infrequent inspections of the teaching staff, and a high degree of teacher autonomy.

Weick, (1982) has stated that any organization which exhibits any one of the above stated characteristics may be said to be "loosely coupled".

Whether the findings of the effective schools research extends to all schools is questionable, as the vast majority of the research has been conducted within the urban elementary school environment (Purkey and Smith 1983), or that elementary schools are not the same as secondary schools, (Firestone and Herriott 1981, 1982a, 1982b).

Recent investigations into the "loose-coupling" debate has resulted in mixed findings. Macy's (1986) research established that some secondary schools corresponded to the classical rational type when examined from the goals dimension. Blase (1987), and Kelly and Rooney (1989) indicated that characteristics of effective schools can apply to secondary schools as well as elementary schools. Peterson, Murphy, and Hallinger (1987) ascertained that strong linkages were present between the central office and the building principals on the evaluative dimension. Peterson, Murphy, and Hallinger contended that the tight linkages are indicative of the top-down bureaucratic organization. However, it was concluded that the schools investigated were of the "loose-tight" typology.

Other investigators contend that schools are neither loosely coupled nor rational organizations, but collections of political collations (Bacharach 1983, Bacharach and Lawler 1980).

This paper reports the findings of a study intended to advance the knowledge of the organizational structure of small rural schools and the relationship between the effective schools research.

Research methodology

This investigation utilized a stratified random sample process for the selection of the sample population to be studied; utilizing a table of random numbers for the selection of all respondents. Thus, employing a definition of small rural schools obtained from the Digest of Education Statistics (1988), thirty schools were selected at random for the investigation.

From each randomly selected school, each building principal was included in the sample population, with two additional teachers choosen at random. The final sample was composed of ninety individuals with a 2:1 ratio of teachers to principals and a 2:1 ratio of elementary schools to secondary schools.

A survey instrument was developed from a review of the literature related to organizational structure and effective schools literature. Statements included in the survey instrument were organized around four dimensions of goals, rules, evaluations and autonomy. The survey instrument utilized a discrepancy analysis between what respondents percieved to be occuring and what should occur within the organization. Respondents were asked to indicate whether a statement reflected current practices and whether such practices should be occurring as regards statements based upon the four dimensions of goals, rules, autonomy, and evaluations. Scales used were is occurring and should occur.

Limitations

1. The investigation was limited to small rural schools within Washington State, during the year 1988-89 and included schools of k-6 or 9-12 configuration. No other public or private school configuration was utilized.

SUMMARY OF DATA

Responses to each of the four dimensions (goals, rules, evaluation and autonomy) were analyzed on two scales (is and should) by two sets of paired categories utilizing Chi-Square analysis. Paired categories included principals-teachers and the elementary-secondary level.

FINDINGS

Goals summary

The ten goal ten statements related to the clarity of goals, application of goals, review of goals, and codification of goals within small rural schools. Analysis of the goal dimension revealed the following information.

No significant Chi-Square values were present between the paired sets of categories (principals-teachers or elementary-secondary) on any of the ten statements for either the *is* scale or the *should* scale. Therefore the Hypotheses were accepted as there being no difference in organizational coupling or structure on the goal dimension.

Rules Summary

The rules dimension included nine statements related to clarity, application, review, and codification of rules of the organization, with no definite pattern occurring between discrepancies. Significant Chi-Square values (.05 level of significance) were present on both scales (*is* and *should*) on six of the possible thirty-six potential selections, such values occurring on a purely random baisis. Therefore the hypotheses were accepted as there was no statisical differnce between the respondents on the rules dimension for either of the two scales.

Evaluation summary

Within the evaluation dimension, there were six sets of statements associated with the conduct of evaluations, analysis of evaluations, observations (including specific goals), and feedback on informal observations.

Four of the six evaluation statements, revealed significant Chi-Square values at the .05 level. These four statements revealed a difference representing 16.6% of the total. Statements that revealed levels of significance *occurred only on the principals-teachers category for the is scale*. No levels of significant Chi-Square values were present for the elementary-secondary category for either the is or the should scale for either category.

INSERT TABLE ONE ABOUT HERE

Of the respondents, principals indicated that what is occurring should occur; while teachers indicated what is occurring may be occurring. Both indicated that such practices should occur.

Hypotheses one was accepted, when analyzed, there was no difference in the extent of organizational characteristics for evaluative practices within the small rural schools in Washington state when analyzed from an overall perspective.

However, when examined from the dimension of principals to teachers, hypotheses one was rejected. There were differences between principals and teachers, over what is perceived to occur and what does occur with respect to evaluations is at variance.

Hypotheses two was accepted. There is no difference in organizational coupling within the small rural schools in Washington state when evaluative characteristics were examined on a Chi-Square analysis from a total perspective. What differences existed occurred only on one set of paired categories. However, when examined from the principals-teachers dimension, hypotheses two is rejected. Significant differences were present among principals and teachers regarding what was perceived to occur in the area of evaluations and what actually occurred between the parties.

Evidence existed that characteristics of loose coupling and tight coupling were present within the small rural schools as demonstrated by the absence of significant differences on the elementary-secondary level category when examined in toto and, when examined from the dimension of principals to teachers loose coupling of the organization was very much in evidence, with characteristics of loosely instituted evaluations in evidence.

Autonomy Summary

Autonomy statements totaled nine in number and were related to teacher involvement in: textbook selection, day-to-day instruction, personnel practices, curricular choices, teacher involvement in student behavior management, and analysis of standardized tests for student progress.

Significant Chi-Square values were present on two of the thirty-six. This represented 5% of the total. Overall, (both sets of paired categories and both scales) respondents indicated that cooperation in determining curricular issues, testing results, textbook selection, student behavior management were present in small rural schools in Washington State.

Hypotheses one was accepted. There was no difference in the extent of organizational characteristics of autonomy existing within the small rural principal-teacher category in Washington state on the autonomy dimension.

Hypotheses two was accepted. There was no difference in organizational coupling characteristics of autonomy existing within the small rural principal-teacher category, in Washington state on the autonomy dimension.

CONCLUSIONS

Karl Weick stated (1976, 1979, 1982) that organizations that exhibit any one of the following: (1) ambiguous goals, (2) vague rules or rules infrequently applied, (3) infrequent evaluations of the workforce, and (4) an autonomous workforce, are loosely coupled.

When viewed from an overall perspective, no definite pattern in organizational structure or organizational characteristics within the small rural schools was revealed. There was evidence of both loose and tight coupling between the categories and two scales utilized (is and should). Overall a total of one hundred and thirty six potential responses were analyzed by Chi-Square for differences on the two scales and between two sets of paired categories on the four dimensions. Of these one hundred and thirty six potential responses, thirteen or 9.5% of the total revealed discrepancies, which were not distributed in a consistent pattern among the four dimensions investigated. The one exception occurred between principals and teachers on the is scale for evaluation. The patterns were revealed to be consistently inconsistent between the categories, dimensions and scales.

The amount and degree of consensus on organizational goals among all categories and scales was notable by the lack of significant differences present among the forty possible selections. What discrepancies were present were not consistent among the categories or among the scales.

Evidence of disagreement was present within the rules categories. The disparities were not consistent among the categories investigated, and did not constitute the majority of the nine statements presented to respondents on the survey.

Disagreement was strongest on the evaluation dimension with four of the six statements producing significant Chi-Square values. However, the discrepancies occurred only between principals and teachers and no other category of respondents. When the elementary-secondary respondents were examined for this discrepancy, no statistically significant values were exhibited.

It was discovered that both sets of paired categories perceived that teacher autonomy was present for day-to-day instruction (though not significant). Nonetheless, what significant differences were revealed were inconsistent between the categories and did not form an overall pattern. Evidence exists to support the conclusion that there is a great deal of cooperation among the teachers and administrators of small rural schools within Washington state.

Evidence existed to support the contention of Kelly and Rooney (1989) that effective school research was valid for secondary schools as well as elementary schools. Such evidence, though may be reflective of more traditional scientific bureaucratic styles of management, than what the Chi-Square analysis was able to indicate.

It must be emphasized that such wholesale application of these findings should be viewed as highly contextual. It is entirely possible that within another state or another size category of schools, the findings may reflect different degrees of coupling, or no coupling.

Therefore, administrators and policy makers seeking to improve the schools should conduct a careful analysis of each district, building, or individual schools strengths and weaknesses. This should include analysis of the external as well as the internal environment. It is not clear whether the principals of those schools had particular mandates to implement the various degrees of school improvement programs reported.

It is still unclear whether small rural schools are "loosely coupled" or of some other mix due to rural homogenity which may increase the levels of communication.

The evaluation dimension exhibited great disparities among principal and teacher respondents. The presence of such large disagreement between principals and teachers regarding the purposes of evaluation, specifics of evaluations, and the results of the evaluations being covered with the teaching staff raises certain questions about the use and or abuse of clinical supervision models.

Discrepancies between teachers and principals over teacher evaluations negates any benefit gained in tight coupling. Organizational progress towards attaing school goals, utilizing rules to promote goal attainment, and principal leadership in curriculum is mitigated when evaluations are not perceived as being specific, nor conducted for instructional improvement.

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Table 1.

Summary of Chi-Square Analysis by Principal-Teacher Category

	IS		SHOULD	
Item	Principal	Teacher	Principal	Teacher
1. Evaluation conducted for improvement.	96%*	64%	100%	100%
2. Evaluations provide specific feedback.	100%*	70%	100%	100%
3. Pre-obser. conf. held.	73%	45%	90%	93%
4. Evaluations provide specific recommen.	96%*	57%	100%	82%
5. Obser. include specific teacher goals.	78%	64%	100%	98%
6. Results of evaluations covered with teacher.	96%*	65%	100%	98%

* Indicates the presence of significant Chi-Square value at .05 level as represented by aggregated percentages (Appendix H).

NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Frank Nicassio
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

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Umatilla Education Service District
2001 S.W. Nye Avenue
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SwampLog //: A Structured Journal for Personal and Professional Inquiry Within a Collaborative Environment [1]

INTRODUCTION

The SwampLog is a journal intended to serve as a sourcebook of the facts of daily practice as experienced and perceived by practitioners within the context of their own professional activities. Because the journal, like a diary, is a written document constructed by the practitioner over time, it can help render intelligible the often messy and confusing array of complex interactions of daily events by pointing to regularities, limits, and possibilities of work situations, the individuals within those situations, and the symbiotic relationship between the two. When used with colleagues as part of an ongoing discussion group, the SwampLog can also help surface the insights of individual participants and make available to the entire group their work related understandings--their skills, their knowledge, their biases, their values, their wisdom, their commitments. These personal attributes are a significant resource in collective problem solving and in the accomplishment of individual and organizational goals. SwampLog may thus function to help foster individual and organizational development.

The label, "SwampLog," was inspired by Donald Schon's (1987) metaphor used to distinguish the *swamplands of practice* from the *high, hard ground of research*. The high, hard ground of research emphasizes technical, rational approaches to problem solving in which professionals apply theory and research results to the accomplishment of clearly specified outcomes. In the extreme view, practitioners are thought of as expert technicians who apply proven methods (*best practices*) to solve important problems. Many, if not most, professionals in the social sciences, human service professions, and education have been trained in this approach to decision making and action. It is an artifact of a rational, scientific, industrial world view.

In the swamplands of practice, on the other hand, problems of interest tend to be ill-formed, messy, and often defy technical solutions due to the complex interactions of economic, social, psychological, and political forces. The simple application of *best practices* is often insufficient for the satisfactory solution of complex, context-specific problems. A process of *reflection-in-action,* typified by self-reflective inquiry and collaborative problem framing, is often necessary to establish coherence and direction within the problem context. This process relies on the task related skills, knowledge, and insight of participants, is characterized by improvisation in setting viable courses of action, and is sustained by monitoring-and-tailoring as a means of refining performance over time. Reflection-in-action takes many forms and is known by a variety of names including: cooperative inquiry, participatory research, dialogic inquiry, collaborative inquiry, action science, action research, experiential research (Reason, 1988, 1,2); critical inquiry (Sirotnik, 1987); and decision oriented educational research (Cooley & Bickel, 1986). Because a major source of learning for both new and experienced educators is *within the school itself* (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988, p. 5), the skillful use of reflection-in-action can contribute significantly to school improvement and renewal. It has been argued by some that school renewal is, in fact, the process of critical inquiry (reflection-in-action) itself (Sirtonik, 1987, p. 42).

One implication of the above thoughts is that reflection-in-action might be fostered through use of an empirical method or tool other than one designed for the laboratory, a tool that would enable professionals to investigate important problems of practice under circumstances of imprecision and flux. We might anticipate that any such tool intended for use by practitioners would have to be flexible enough to fit into the rapidly changing circumstances of their day's work, yet structured enough to provide information about themselves, their organizations, and the intersection of these personal and social domains. SwampLog // is the revised version of an attempt to create such a tool. It is hoped that it will eventually provide an opportunity to foster, within the user, a certain perspective or imaginative point of view, one that sociologist, C. Wright Mills referred to long ago as "...a quality of mind that seems most dramatically to promise an understanding of the intimate realities of ourselves in connection with larger social realities " (Mills, 1959, p. 15).

Structured journalling as intended by SwampLog // evolved after reviewing various literatures including the following: *action research* (Dowhower, Melvin & Sizemore, 1990; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988a, 1988b; Miller & Pine, 1990); *critical inquiry* (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Giroux, 1983; Sirotnik, 1984, 1987); *collaborative inquiry* (Grumet, 1989; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Nicassio, Houchin, Johnson, Withycombe, Leidall, Vann, Anderson, Fellows, Adams, & Brown, 1985; Reason, 1988); *practitioner/ researcher models of inquiry and change* (Barlow, Hayes & Nelson, 1984; Butler, 1989; Gosswami & Stillman, 1987; Hersen & Barlow, 1976; Lytle & Cochran-Smith, 1989; Mohr & MacLean, 1987; O'Donohue, 1989; Schon, 1987); concepts related to *curriculum and instruction, instructional supervision, educational environments and change,* and *alternate forms of educational research* (Casanova, 1989; Cooley & Bickel, 1986; Duckworth, 1987; Field & Hill, 1988; Garman, 1986; George, 1990; Goodlad, 1984; Grumet, 1989; Guba, 1990; Guba & Lincoln, 1981/1987, 1989; Heckman, 1987; Joyce, Hersch & McKibbin, 1983; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Nolan & Huber, 1989; Patton, 1990; Perry-Sheldon & Allain, 1987; Sergiovanni, 1985; Sirotnik & Clark, 1988; Staton, 1985, 1987; Turner-Muecke, Russell & Bowyer, 1986; Wigginton, 1986); *popular self-help psychology* (Capacchione, 1979, 1982; Glouberman, 1989; Moore, 1989; Rogers, 1988); and the human potential interests expressed by *holistic depth psychology* (Kaiser, 1981; Peterson, 1982; Progoff, 1975, 1980, 1983; Tart, 1990; van Manen, 1990).

It is intended that through sustained and consistent use of the structured journal to be described below, practitioners will become:

√...better observers of themselves as individuals and as educators.
√...better observers of the educational environments in which they work.
√...better able to write about and reflect upon the daily experiences that go into making up their professional practice.
√...better able to shape those daily experiences into personally, professionally, and organizationally productive plans and actions.
√...better able to more openly discuss with colleagues their personal observations about practice, their underlying motivations and feelings, and their work environments.
√...better able to be supportive of, and supported by, colleagues in creating positive conditions for change in professional practices.
√...better able to be supportive of, and supported by, colleagues in enhancing the teaching and learning environments in which students work.

An emphasis on nurturance of both the individual and the environment is intentional. It derives from a belief that individuals and the contexts within which they operate depend upon each other for their definition and vitality; they are interdependent. Together, both individuals and circumstances shape various events, activities, and meanings that come to define the nature of educational contexts and of the individuals within them. This is significant, in that it is educators who are in the business of fostering the best in human development and learning. As collaborating journal keepers we hope to create a mutually supportive community of active learners who model the ideals of *participatory inquiry* for their students.

THE STRUCTURE OF SWAMPLOG //

The SampLog consists of four general types of journal entries, each distinguished by its own purpose. These four general entry types—which may be noted in the pages of a loose-leaf binder, a spiral notebook, or some other convenient blank book—are discussed below.

Daily Log Entries. The Daily Log entries serve as an ongoing record of daily events; receptacles for the observations, insights, and feelings that make up daily practice. Ideally, these entries would be made shortly after the events actually occur. When this is not possible, it is helpful to sit quietly for 10-15 minutes at the close of each day and, in a non-judgemental and unpremediated manner, note those aspects of the day that come immediately to mind. Entries should be brief and record what might be considered the empirical, descriptive, or *objective facts* of practice, and also the feelings, intuitions or *inner states* that are evoked.

The objective facts of practice are generally expressed as anecdotal descriptions of the events and activities of the day. These descriptions might even be formalized into the graphical data displays typical of behavioral interventionists. Inner states, on the other hand, are often embodied in our moods and in the unspoken thoughts we *catch ourselves* mulling over in our heads. Recording our inner states can make visible to us our own taken for granted assumptions. Through the act of recording, we transform tacit into propositional knowledge which may then be dealt with in a more direct manner. Inner states also appear as insights or "ah ha! " experiences. We record such insights because of their potential problem solving value, and because a series of smaller insights recorded over time may, in fact, coalesce into a *grand* solution of considerable significance. Attention to our inner selves increases our sensitivity to an important resource which may be drawn upon as we make our way through the swamplands of practice.

It is as Daily Log entries that we also note the history and unique points of view of our organizations as they present themselves to us during daily routine. We become sensitive observers and pay careful attention during meetings, during casual social conversations, and at other times when people share the past events, myths, crises, heroes, and villains of the organization. We do not judge the organization, we simply note our perceptions over a long period of time and thus create a record of the organization's history, mores, values--its culture. In this way we begin to create a sense of the organization within which we conduct our professional lives. Organizations, like individuals, unfold, evolve, and develop to meet changing demands. Positive changes in our own practice can only move forward in terms of both self and organizational integrity; recall our assumption that individuals and their contexts are symbiotically interdependent. In their brief summary of action research, Stephen Kemmis and Robin McTaggart indicate the significance of understanding the nature of the context within which professional practice is conducted. Their comments are worth noting in total:

> Action research involves people in making *critical analyses* of the situations (classrooms, schools, systems) in which they work: these

> situations are *structured* institutionally. The pattern of resistance an action researcher meets in changing his or her own practices is a pattern of conflicts between the new practices and the accepted practices of the institution (accepted practices of communication, decision making and educational work). By making a critical analysis of the institution, the action researcher can understand how resistances are rooted in conflicts between competing sets of practice, competing views of educational perspectives and values, and competing views of organisation and decision making. This critical understanding will help the action researcher to act politically towards overcoming resistances (for example, by involving others collaboratively in the research process, inviting others to explore their practices, or by working in the wider school context towards more rational educational understandings, more just processes of decision making, and more fulfilling forms of educational work for all involved). (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988a, p. 24).

To summarize, making brief Daily Log entries is a cumulative discipline which is intended to sensitize our powers of observation and intuition so that we might better understand the patterns of our own practice, the circumstances and values of the work place, and the interplay between the two. Our Daily Log entries make that understanding more likely, and help us maintain integrity in the relationship between our intended and actual practices. Our brief excerpts will be silently re-read by us prior to making Summary Log entries which are discussed next.

Summary Log Entries. Summary Log entries are journal notations that draw together into summary format the recent past events of our practice. They provide a condensed outline of the contents of daily experience and help us draw them into clearer focus.

There are several ways to proceed with the writing of a Summary Log entry. In my own work, collaborative inquiry groups engage in a re-reading, imaging, and writing exercise of about 40 minutes in length. After spending several minutes re-reading Daily Log entries, journal keepers are then guided, by means of imagery, to write: 1) a short *global impression* of the period covered by the Daily Log entries; 2) a short summary of the *contents* of worklife; 3) a short summary of the *people relationships* of practice; 4) a short summary of the *socio-cultural* aspects of practice; 5) a summary of the *physical aspects* of worklife; 6) a summary of *extraordinary or dramatic events*; and; 7) *reactions* to the six summary statements just written. This exercise was adapted from the work of Ira Progroff (1975) and is engaged in by journal keepers whenever there is a need to *sum up*.

A more direct approach is for journal keepers to simply re-read Daily Log entries as above, and then sit quietly, relax, focus attention on recent experiences, and write to complete the phrase, "This recent time has been a time when......" This phrase was developed by Progoff as part of his lengthy *Period Log* exercise from which the procedure described in the previous paragraph was adapted. Progoff (1975, 1980, 1983) as well as Capacchione (1979, 1982) should be consulted for excellent *summary* as well as other journal keeping ideas.

Reading-back (to one's self or into a taperecorder) is an important aspect of journal keeping. It is during read-back that people may report experiencing a more *holistic* sense of their life and work. New units of meaning and understanding may automatically coalesce into new wholes that are completely unexpected. It is only in retrospect that we are sometimes able to apprehend the unique patterns of our own personal thoughts and actions as well as the subtle regularities of the environments in which we work.

To reiterate, Summary Log entries are brief summaries intended to help bring clarity and focus to the recent events of professional life. They are our first step in strategically positioning ourselves somewhere between perceptions of the past and possibilities of the future.

Reflections and Explorations. Whereas the first two types of entries provide descriptions of lived experience, Reflections and Explorations are entries intended to help develop understanding about the implications of that experience. Reflection simply means *mindful thought* (critical thinking) whereas Exploration means the consideration of *alternative perspectives* (hypothesis generation, extrapolation). Reflections and Explorations are entries made whenever the journal keeper feels a need to *muck around and work it all out* ; a need to reflect on experiences, explore them for meaning, and create the canons that guide action. It is with Reflections and Explorations that we attempt to understand our professional practice from a new perspective. It is the *new perspective* that lies at the base of productive problem solution. Einstein and Infeld expressed long ago the truth of this for the growth of science:

> The formulation of a problem is far more often essential than its solution, which may be merely a matter of mathematical or experimental skill. To raise new questions, new possibilities, to regard old problems from a new angle requires creative imagination and marks real advance in science. (Quoted in Isaac & Michael, 1971, p. 1)

This truth holds also for the solution of problems in the swamplands of practice. It is through the process of reflecting upon and exploring ourselves and our work environments that we hope to see new relationships and *regard old problems from a new angle*. We hope to create new meaning for our old experiences and thus foster personal and organizational renewal.

There are inumerable ways to reflect and explore, one need only consider the various aspects of thinking (Marzano, R.J, Brandt, R.S., Hughes, C.S., Jones, B.F., Presseisen, B.Z., Rankin, S.C., & Suhor, C., 1988). The following examples, taken from my own journal, will illustrate entries I have used for reflection and exploration: 1) elaborating on personal motivations for conducting a training workshop (this entry led directly to the seven objectives stated on page 2 of this paper); 2) describing what I considered to be an essential component of a teacher certification program (this entry became a letter to the person at a teachers college who was responsible for developing a course of study); 3) articulating the importance of introducing high school students to *psychlogy as science* and not exclusively as *clinical practice* (this entry evolved into a letter to the Science Directorate of the American Psychological Association); 4) writing about attempts by a group of colleagues to formulate a common theme to focus joint, collaborative inquiry (see Kemmis and McTaggart, 1988a, for a description of the consensus building strategy called *the inventio*); 5) designing possible self-evaluation checklists and observation instruments to be used during the act of instruction (see Hofmeister and Lubke, 1990, for many examples based on the effective teaching literature which may be adapted by teachers to meet various instructional observation needs); 6) writing a scripted dialogue between myself and a person with whom I had to resolve a conflict (see Progoff, 1975, for guidance on developing relationships through dialogue scripting); 7) sketching out a *concept map* (semantic network) to clarify the inter-relationships among the chapters of a proposed manuscript (see Novak & Gowin, 1984, for instruction on developing concept maps).

Having *mucked around* and *worked it all out*, the journal keeper is ready to plan for the future.

Steppingstones. It is by means of a Steppingstones entry that we make a statement about the possibilities of our practice, its content and its course. We record our proposed actions and also our noble intentions. That is, we write a plan that is realistic and possible, but also bold in that it contains those *cultural ideals* we would wish to see more fully embodied in the educational environments of our work. The intention is to lay out steppingstones into the future that are achievable, yet also worthy of our own and others' steps—steppingstones that will inspire the confidence and attention, encourage the support, and amplify the energies of teachers, administrators, therapists, school board members, and other citizens who are the responsible agents of change within our schools.

There are several ways to proceed with the writing of a Steppingstones entry. In my own work, members of collaborative inquiry groups engage in a brief exercise of about 40 minutes in length that has been adapted from an article by Sam Keen (1988) in which he discusses the power of personal myth to guide one's daily actions. In brief, the writing proceeds like this: 1) following several minutes spent in re-reading Summary Log entries and Reflections and Explorations, journal keepers are then prompted to develop a 5 to 10 year timeline into the future marked by significant mileposts (the Steppingstones); and then, 2) expand on the Steppingstones by describing the geographical locale of practice, by characterizing relationships with family, friends and colleagues, by defining the contents of practice, by indicating the attributes of villains and heroes/ heroines who would hinder and help in the future, and by specifying actions (provisional trials) that the journal keeper is willing to take in order to reach the sought after Steppingstones. The annual goals and objectives that professionals of many public agencies are required to write can easily and naturally evolve from this exercise, and may, in fact, be integrated into the journal entry.

With noble intentions and achievable actions in hand, the journal keeper turns to actual engagement with the world, the effects of which are noted as ongoing Daily Log entries. And, so, the cycle of critical inquiry continues.

RULES FOR JOURNAL KEEPING WITHIN COLLABORATIVE ENVIRONMENTS

When used by colleagues as part of an ongoing and collaborative inquiry group, structured journalling can function to help encourage individual and organizational renewal. Because space limitations preclude discussion of such groups, you are encouraged to read the following sources which identify values and activities important to the creation and maintenance of collaborative inquiry environments: Gosswami and Stillman (1987), Grumet (1989), Kemmis and McTaggart (1988a, 1988b), Mohr and MacLean (1987), Nolan and Huber (1989), Reason (1988), Samples (1988), and Sirotnik (1987).

It should be noted in closing, however, that certain principles have proved helpful in fostering cooperative inquiry environments that are valued by participating professionals. We have come to call these principles *the rules of journal keeping within collaborative environments*. They include:

- √ Use your journal frequently and over a long enough period of time to allow the patterns and regularities of your professional practice and work environment to emerge. Journal keeping is a discipline.
- √ Write in an unpremeditated fashion. That is, make an attempt to give up control of your writing by not planning it. Allow your intuition to make itself known.
- √ Write down everything in your journal, even if it seems strange, funny, or inconsequential. Journal entries represent the data of lived experience; record them without judgment or censorship.

√ Write honestly about the things you know deeply; about yourself and your circumstances. Allow yourself to speak what is not ordinarily spoken so that at re-reading you will recognize the truth immediately.

√ Life events are often understood only in retrospect. Consequently, re-reading becomes an important part of journal keeping. Do it often.

√ Keep your journal in a private place. Never read anyone else's journal.

√ In group work, an opportunity is always made to read aloud from journals. There is never any requirement to do so, however. If you feel pressure to read, or discomfort at waiting for others to read, use your journal to help clarify why this is the case. If you do choose to read from your journal, do not discuss or analyze the entry. Simply read it aloud. Opportunities for discussion are also provided.

√ What's read aloud or said in the group, stays in the group.

√ There will be many occasions to help others clarify their thinking with regard to an issue or a problem. At those times it will be beneficial to assume the following attitude: Express genuine interest and concern; without judgment, listen carefully; promote clarity of thinking; subordinate personal desires and agendas to the immediate needs of others; attempt to walk a mile in the other person's shoes, on their behalf, and from their viewpoint.

√ Think globally, act locally.

NOTES

[1] I would like to acknowledge my considerable debt to the work of Ira Progoff—gentle man whose Intensive Journal method is an ingenious creation and gift; to Ken Sirotnik, Stephen Kemmis and Robin McTaggart, and Peter Reason—whose clear and compelling thoughts are contained in the references cited below; to Dr. Robert W. Earl, Huntington Beach, California—whose example of life-long inquiry has been an inspiration for many years; and to my *action research colleagues* at Umatilla Education Service District, Pendleton, Oregon—whose reflections and comradeship have nourished my spirit and thought.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION

Presenter: Carl Seiter
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

Dr. Carl Seiter, Box 5173
Tennessee Technological University
Cookeville, TN 38505

RURAL AMERICA - LEARN YOUR HISTORY OR REPEAT IT

(A THREE LEGGED STOOL DOESN'T TIP OVER)

A NEW BOGEYMAN FOR AMERICA - COMPLEXITY

The research to date is clear. Civilizations are fragile, impermanent, temporal things. The roadside of history is littered with the dead remains of bygone societies. That a civilization can rise and fall is not at all a new idea but it is one that we, in the United States, have not entertained with ourselves in mind. Somehow we see ourselves as on top of an unending crest of increasing attainment and accomplishment. To even consider that such success could ever end has only recently come into our conversation. Recent social theory outlines most of the tenets for the collapse of complex societies. The most recent of these examines social and institutional complexity (Tainter, 1988). I firmly believe rural people in their environment have the necessary attributes to successfully endure and survive those trials that would bring urban life to its knees. In the past, urban decline and collapse has dragged the rural sector down with it. Now, the dynamics of collapse are better understood and rural America need not repeat history. Collapse happens to very large, highly complex social systems. Rural society can be more adaptable and elastic.

We can witness this process in action right now in the Soviet system today. At the same time, while some societies are in the process of dis-integrating* other Third World nations are struggling to attain that same complexity and modernity that now threatens highly complex and industrialized societies (Brown & Jacobson, 1986).

The centuries-long climb to reach the condition of the modern state with its science and technology, its consumer-focused population, its extravagant use of energy and scarce resources is often balanced by an equal descent and decline back towards simpler conditions of equilibrium. The time on top, on the crest of the wave, for America or any other industrialized nation, could well be brief if the dynamics of complexity remain unexamined and allowed to continue unchecked.

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* The term disintegrating in our lexicon all too often carries an implied explosive, violent, and untimely end. It is not meant that this connotation be applied here. To dis-integrate here is to reverse the process of "integration"; that parts of an assembly become disassociated, reducing the overall complex nature of the existing order. An example is the dissolution of parts of the Soviet Union and East European Bloc. There can be considerable benefits to such an arrangement under certain circumstances.

If we assume that in America, we are immune to the dynamics experienced by other societies throughout history, we blind ourselves to the possibility that we are doing much to hasten the process of decline or collapse for ourselves. Brown and Jacobson (1986) document the condition of many countries risking entrapment on the ascending side of the "wave" who may never attain the crest. Conversely, the attempted breakup of the Soviet Baltic States and/or the Eastern European ethnic unrest we witness may be harbingers of a descent on the far side of the wave for these European regions.

Before a case can be made for a path to rural revival, it may help to more closely examine some of the sources for our present difficulties. These can be found in the archeological literature.

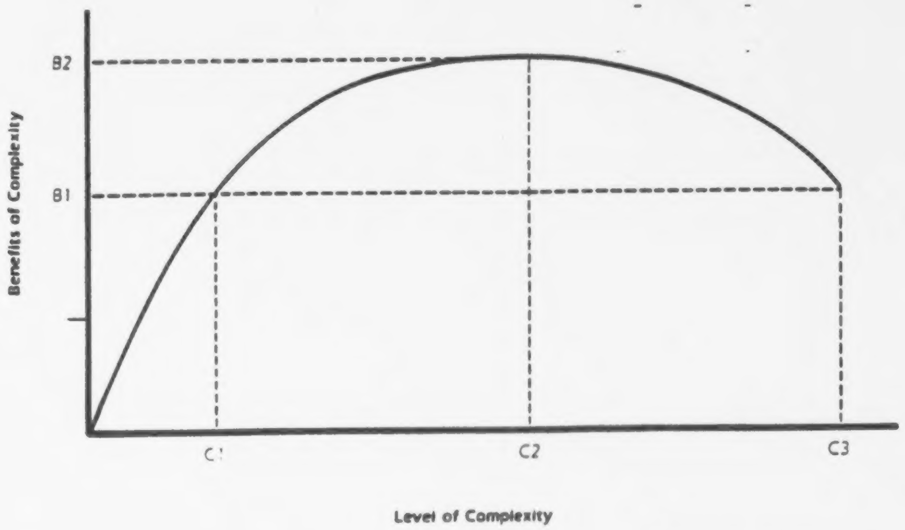
Humans, who seek to act rationally, band together in populations to make use of sources of food, water, energy, and raw materials that are essential for their survival. These pursuits require cooperative efforts that eventually develop into routinized and institutionalized ways of behaving. Having created a socio-political system made up of institutions we call society, humans must continue to invest money, talent, time, energy, and natural resources into the continuing maintenance and development of their institutions (Tainter, 1988).

As new problems emerge to face a society, the sociopolitical response requires increased investment in the existing institutions merely to preserve the status quo. This investment takes the form of the increasing size of bureaucracies, increasing specialization of bureaucracies, and cumulative organizational solutions...ie. when something works, it is maintained (kept alive and funded) until the next time it may be needed. For example, at one time there was no FBI, no IRS, no welfare system, because they, and countless other local, state, and federal agencies, were not needed.

In Figure 1. considerable benefits have accrued to the society at B1/C1 as a result of increased complexity but decrease thereafter. By time B3/C3 is reached, there is abundant complexity but at considerable cost to the society yet with decreased overall benefits. Indeed, the benefits at B3/C3 are the same as they were earlier at B1/C1 and at much lower levels of investment.

Thus while the initial investment in growing complexity may be a rational solution to real and perceived problems, that happy state of affairs cannot be sustained. As the least costly solutions for societal problems are progressively exhausted, any further growth in complexity must be met by more costly responses. The point is eventually reached where continued investment in complexity does not give a proportionate return. The return on investments in complexity begins to shrink, gradually at first and then with acceleration. Take for example our investment in science. Modern science has become less productive overall because it has become complex, specialized, and very expensive. We no longer make scientific progress by flying a kite in a thunderstorm or looking at pond water through a simple microscope. As the easier questions are investigated and resolved, science moves inevitably to more complex areas of exploration and to larger and more expensive organizations. Today we have NASA and sub-atomic particle accelerators costing billions. Sadly, the same argument obtains for education. A society in this condition has reached the phase where it is increasingly vulnerable to collapse (Tainter, 1988).

Fig 1. Benefits as a Function of Complexity



after Tainter, 1988.

Complexity becomes the wedge that begins to break up the mortar in the functional structure of our society's institutions. The increasing costs in financing, training people, implementing and maintaining new functions and upgraded old ones (such as are delegated to schools) cost a great deal but often yield little benefit to society in proportion to the cost. It would appear that the more successfully a young institution does its "own thing", the greater become the chances that later on it will deliver less and less on its intended mission to the supporting society - yet it will cost more merely to keep it in a state of equilibrium. This happens because it becomes internally so complex that further development or delivery of services become inordinately difficult or expensive. Hence our own malfunctioning institutions become the very source or some of our most debilitating difficulties. Cities manifest this dynamic in many ways.

Complex societies are new in human history and any anticipated decline or collapse need **not** be an uncontrolled free-fall to some primative condition, but rather a return to the more normal historical human condition and experience of lower complexity. The idea that collapse is an unprecedented catastrophe is not the point here. Collapse or decline **can** become highly utilitarian and necessary to restore the benefits of an earlier and simpler organizational structure that once served the society so very well. When increasing investment in complexity begins to yield little or no benefits (other than to its own continued existance), a return to simpler organizational conditions (collapse to many people) becomes an **economizing** process. Under such conditions, collapse may be the most appropriate response a society can have. For the vast majority of rural populations who have had minimal benefit from the existing high degree of urban complexity, this may appear as a very rational process with considerable appeal.

THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES: A MIRROR IMAGE OF FUTURE AMERICA?

Obscured in the research on understanding how nations develop are some cryptic warnings for rural America. There are developments taking place here, in this country, that mirror some events in third-world countries. If the dynamics remain unchanged, the outcomes in other lands may have an unwelcome message for we Americans. These appear to be:

1. Do not assume that we could never, by some sequence of events, succumb to the conditions of man-made drought and desertification; increasing hunger and widespread homelessness that creates very large numbers of migratory environmental refugees, and a general decline towards third world status.

2. Twentieth century cities are a phenomenon rising from the technological changes and availability of vast energy supplies of the last century. Cities command a disproportionate share of society's resources and create a disproportionate share of society's wastes . Mexico city, for example, cannot provide goods and services to the nation adequate to offset its drain on Mexico's national resources. Hence the city has become a liability to the entire country (Brown & Jaocobson, 1987).

3. America's demographic structure is increasingly dominated by young people and most of them from the minority groups. These young people put increasing pressure on social institutions and may eventually populate the ranks of the unemployed. Forecasts warn that educational systems will become inundated with new students and this flux of youth may overwhelm some city school systems making a mockery of compulsory attendance let alone meaningful education (De Vita, 1989).

4. Another neglected area of research that applies to the deteriorating cities of America is how **crowding** contributes to **conflict**. "Crowding does provide a set of conditions, a context in which tension, violence, and various forms of aberrant beha-

vior are more likely to occur". Crowding, coupled with competition for jobs, may exacerbate long-standing racial, religious, and ethnic differences. "The basic ingredients for internal political conflict and civil strife are in place. An economic slowdown induced by rising external debt, rising numbers of unemployed youth, and a highly skewed income distribution seem certain to breed social tensions and increasing unrest". That passage was written about Mexico. Do you find any reason that it is not also true of urban America? (Brown, et al. p 27-28).

LISTEN UP RURAL AMERICA

Rural America might well examine these developments because when solutions are seriously needed in this country for many of our emerging urban difficulties, it is only the rural place that remains as a physical buffer, an "out-back", a place for retreat from the pressing problems of the urban place. It will be perceived as a resource possibly very useful in the resolution of these vast urban problems. Sadly, politicians will likely favor continuing support and development of the urban over the rural. That is where the votes are and remains the locus of their power. Yet they might also regard the rural place as a good "dumping ground" or exploitable resource to address many of their urban ills. Exactly how this will occur is not clear. It is already clear that urban centers see rural America as a good place to dump their garbage. In any case, there may be a strong and increasing effort from urban leaders to continue exploitation of rural people and their environment.

For the last several millennia, world population has been rural. As late as 1900, only 14 percent of the world's population lived in cities. Changes in technology and the ready availability of vast energy supplies fueled the urbanization we now observe. Coal, replacing firewood, was in turn replaced by oil. Oil enabled cities to extend their supply lines and draw food and other raw materials from very distant points. Cheap oil and economic policies favoring industrial development led to the surge in urban growth.

But today, city dwellers, now some 43 percent of the world's population, command a disproportionate share of society's financial and natural resources and generate a disproportionate share of its wastes. Preferential urban policies and subsidies make food and other basic goods cheaper in the city discouraging agricultural development thus attracting people to urban areas. When, in Poland, Egypt, and other places, their food subsidy bubble was broken and urban dwellers were required to pay the actual costs of their food, there were serious food riots.

In the spring of 1989 Wall, et al, presented a short piece, that captured with dreadful clarity, what rural America is enduring. They fictionalized a small town gradually dying as "progress" swallowed what few measures of stability it once enjoyed. While reading Wendell Berry (whose books should be in the center of all rural bookshelves) I found he quoted Thomas Jefferson to good effect. "Cultivators of the earth are the most valuable citizens. They are the most vigorous, the most independent, the most virtuous, and they are tied to their country, and wedded to its liberty and interests by the most lasting bonds." Conversely, Jefferson also wrote, "I consider the class of artificers as the panders of vice, and the instruments by which the liberties of a country are generally overturned." Berry believes by "artificers" Jefferson meant manufacturers and he made no distinction between "management" and "labor" (Berry, 1977: p143).

Of course these same rural "cultivators of the earth" get married, raise families, and often choose to stay "tied to their country, and wedded to its liberty...", for very personal and profound reasons. But when we introduce the last 100 years of social, scientific, and technological progress into the equation, we see this way of life to be in serious jeopardy.

What I propose is that the very continuity of rural life may require rural people to become those same "artificers" of whom Jefferson spoke so disparagingly. When a community watches its young people fail to succeed in school and fail to enjoy the success they might have had, surely it breaks their hearts. And yet to attack only this dimension of the problem may be to mistakenly isolate schooling problems from the many others that likely afflict any small, rural community. If city folk choose to fragment their lives and experiences into small slices that occur in isolated places called institutions, we should let them. Problems facing rural communities today are multi-dimensional and a one-dimensional approach with schooling alone may not accomplish what is intended. Such a direct linear attack on the needs of at-risk youth may only replicate the mistakes of the cities. The historical strength of the rural community was the **absence** of the artificial divisions in their lives and activities found in such abundance in urban life. In rural America there was a continuity from dawn to dusk, from home to community, from person to group, from work to play. When rural places emmulate the urban ways, they tend to disengage from these traditional sources of rural strength and continuity.

This is why I argue that the small-scale rural replication of various urban institutions such as schools, welfare agencies, economic activities, etc, **all working in isolation from one another**, may become counterproductive and divisive where a more community-wide approach may succeed. Consider this letter. "We're an isolated rural community with a large underemployed population. We think we should be doing more to combat our problems, but we don't know where to start"; or this one, "Our community engages in a lot of finger pointing. Cultural, church, and civic groups all blame each other for our problems: drugs, absentee landlords, rubble-strewn vacant lots. How can we get over this hump?" (The Regeneration Project, 1987).

A community of this sort might **not** be a place where a good student and eventual high school graduate would choose to remain as an adult or return to after college graduation. Nor is it likely a community in which other less able, at-risk, students can easily take pride. Community members might come together to make some serious decisions. These decisions should revolve around new and emerging opportunities for economic development and the young people should be allowed to participate in this dialogue. If and when these economic developments materialize, the youth should again be allowed to participate in wage-earning. When this economic activity involves learning or schooling, the youth should again be first in line.

So this is the first order of business: to generate a community energy and enthusiasm that captivates the imaginations of everyone - especially the youth - a community that elicits pride from all its citizens.

SHOULD SCHOOLS BECOME INVOLVED IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT?

SHOULD ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT INVOLVE THE SCHOOLS?

Such youthful participation in serious community matters is indeed an alternative intervention and schools can and should be deeply involved. The genesis of alternative intervention services for rural, at-risk youth should involve the entire community in ways that promote increased **involvement** and **pride** in the community for everyone, especially the youth. Few urban citizens profess great pride their city. Detroit has had to push a "Love Detroit" program rather hard. Pride in a rural community would not be so difficult when it is not contrived, fabricated and directed by the public relations arm of the mayor's office.

Any increased economic opportunity should again include the youth and provide **substantial reasons** and **means** for youth to remain in their hometowns or rural areas as productive adults rather than fleeing to the large cities where their prognosis is not good! Our youth need good reasons for staying or returning home!

If we permit these alternative intervention services to be the sole province of some agency, school district, or other single institutional entity, we levy a burden that is not lightly carried and could run the risk of failing to deliver on its intended mission. Moreover, such intervention programs may come to require continuous funding at a time when fiscal resources are becoming very scarce. Institutional complexity should be avoided.

This proposal urges the entire community be involved in any major intervention program for at-risk youth. It would integrate many community dimensions and become quite comprehensive. Under these conditions, funding becomes less an issue since the activities proposed here can be self-supporting. It might be said that funding is internal and eternal allowing the students for whom intervention has been successful to remain in the community as adults and carry on the program to assist the next generation of similar youth.

The first part of this effort is not at all new. It starts with examining the local economic structure to identify economic needs, and explore ways of regenerating or enhancing the local economy but with a new wrinkle in part, to take advantage, though not cynically, of urban difficulties. These at-risk youth, indeed all youth, might come to feel they have a stake in the outcome of this effort to enhance the local economy. They should be invited to become full participants in the planning, implementation, and fruits of any economic developments.

Another major part of this effort may indeed be new. All rural citizens should become well-schooled on what cities are all about...that the glamour, the wealth, the adventure, and opportunity stand side by side with poverty, illness, homelessness, stress, danger, and failed dreams. The equation must remain balanced: for all the positive attributes to be found in the large urban place there is also an equal and opposite measure of the negative. Incorporate this recognition with the reality that **many cities now face difficulties from which some of them may never emerge**, and most sensible youth may choose to make their stand in the rural place. The allure of the city must be balanced with an understanding of the reality of the city. A major part of this effort must include a searching examination of the merits of the rural environment and its people in spite of the indifference and neglect shown from state and national leaders.

THE THREE LEGGED STOOL OF RURAL SUCCESS

Leg One: **Evasive Action**: Carefully Examine Urban Problems.

A large portion of the emerging economic health of the rural place could have its genesis in taking advantage of the developing scarcities and difficulties that face the urban place. For example, to provide space for trash, to develop and build efficient recylcling facilities, to develop new products and uses for these recycled materials, to develop appropriate technology for controlled and monitored environments that do help the cities dispose of their trash and perhaps even their toxic wastes. Involving youth in an educational/business partnership in this context is not the same as in urban experiments. This point is very important! In this scenario, the students' education must contain curriculum and experience that ensures whatever enterprise they choose to share, it must be sustainable over the very long term. They must come to understand that much of current American business and industry is on a path that cannot be sustained when energy and resources become very scarce or very serious environmental issues. The public and private values that accompany affluence and mass consumption must be carefuly examined and allowed to compete with those that promote long-term economic, social, and environmental stability. There is no point to raising children with unrealistic expectations of the future or to pursue styles of economic activity already shown to be bankrupt of any long-term sustainablity. Many parents in America now feel that their children will not have as "good" a life as they have had. What constitutes the "good" life is a very valid question for the classroom. If one looks at the world through muddy brown glasses the world will appear muddy brown. If one looks at the world through rosy pink glasses the world will appear rosy pink. The metaphor refers to one's values and perceptions. What we observe to be a declining urban society with a sinking "American Dream" might really be an unprecedented opportunity to change glasses and see things in a new perspective...perhaps a rural one but surely a sustainable one.

The large urban places may be incapable of making such changes in their economic views and activites and if not, they may soon grind to a halt. But this is no reason for rural places to repeat urban mistakes. This is an opportunity to implement environmentally sound and people-sensitive economic activities that can be found in the appropriate literature such as, "Small is Beautiful", "Appropriate Technology" and so forth.

Leg Two: "**Man the Barricades:**
Carefully Examine Rural Attributes..take **REAL** stock of what you already have and protect it.

Having examined cities very carefully and perhaps deciding that this is no way or place to live, it is time to extoll the virtues of rural living and be wary of urban motives for rural exploitation. This is not to mean that rural completely turns its back on the urban but that it must be very wary and suspicious of the motives of urban policy makers who approach rural leaders with proposals that might result in further exploitation and degradation. Urban planners do not have the best interests of the rural place at heart when they plan - when did you last hear of a rural planner employed by the city? However, there must be a willingness of rural to help urban, but let it cost them (the cities that is).

To balance the study of cities, explore, define, document and emphasize the positive qualities that rural places have to offer. This dialogue must take place in both the schools and in the public forum. All citizens should engage in this exploration of their collective future and all must come to feel they have a role and a stake in the outcome. Intense discussions might examine all of the pros and cons of both urban and rural environments so all citizens can explore and compare for themselves. This kind of dialogue probably cannot occur in an urban environment because each person, group, or institution is engaged in its own isolated and fragmented activities that separate it from others...where each group is locked into a survival mode with an indifference or disregard for the others.

Massive social dislocations are very probable events for our youth in the not-distant future. With the right dialogue and action, not only can the rural place survive, but it might prevail.

Leg Three: Turn 'Despair' into 'Repair':
Carefully Explore School/Community/Economic Options...take advantage of developing scarcities and new technologies to provide decentralized services for yourselves and the cities.

The role of the school might now include being a broker uniting diverse parts of the community in the development of low-tech economic activites and industries through vocational programs that take economic advantage of the urban problems. For example, develop programs that recycle for the cities, manufacture with those recycled materials, design low-tech manufacture of "appropriate technology" for sale in other rural places, etc. Use electronic communication to provide services for the cities from the rural community. See that the youth are deeply involved in this enterprise. One can expect this fosters pride in the community; that it stimulates a desire to stay in that community and succeed in the rural place rather than being sucked into cities. This could boost the economic health of the area and integrate many of the earlier forces that once held rural places together in the first place... a time when there was little differentiation between work/play/community.

There is much social change that has occurred with the development of cities that has not been in the best interests of humankind. Setting aside some of these developments may help restore pride and control over one's rural life experiences and restore rural community health to its citizens.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: R. Fletcher
Co-Presenter: Jack T. Cole
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

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FACTORS RELATED TO THE SUCCESSFUL OPERATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION INTERDISTRICT COOPERATIVES

ABSTRACT

A series of three national studies were conducted to determine which factors (governance, demographic, managerial and organizational) distinguish between special education interdistrict cooperatives which are perceived as successful or very effective and interdistrict cooperatives which are perceived less favorably by State Education Agencies and member/ consumer districts. The findings suggest that managerial and organizational factors are more likely to distinguish between the two groups than governance or demographic factors.

INTRODUCTION

Anyone who has tried to operate cooperative services between and among districts can cite the litany of concerns that are shared among administrators and policy makers brave enough or needy enough to assume the task. These concerns comprise what we have labeled "assumptions." Assumptions about what makes effective cooperatives:

1. Don't have too many members.
2. Don't be too large geographically.
3. Don't take on too much.
4. You need to be legislated or it will fall apart.
5. You need to be able to employ staff and offer benefits.

And the list goes on.

It was assumptions such as these that we investigated in our series of three national studies beginning in October 1977 and terminating this February 1991. From these studies we have gained insight about which governance structures, demographic factors, managerial factors, and organizational factors distinguish between interdistrict cooperatives perceived as "very effective" and cooperatives perceived as "less effective."

BACKGROUND

A series of three studies were conducted from 1987 to 1990. The first study investigated the status of cooperatives [collaboratives] in the United States. Of the 36 out of 50 states reporting interdistrict collaboratives, 21 states (42%) reported having Intermediate Education Units (IEUs) or Boards of Cooperative Education Services (BOCES); 9 (18%) reported other legislated cooperatives which were neither IEUs or BOCEs; another 6 (12%) reported State Board of Education regulated cooperatives; while 8 (16%) states reported other than state-wide systems. Other state-wide systems included cooperatives which occurred through joint applications for federal funds or through contracts. Six states (12%) reported no formalized state authorized systems (Table 1) (Fletcher, Cole & Strumor, 1990).

TABLE 1

TYPE OF AUTHORIZATION FOR LEA COLLABORATIVES BY STATE

1 State	2 Legislate IEU's BOCES	3 Legislate Systems Other Than IEU's/BOCES	4 SBE Regulated Coop	5 Other Systems (State Plan)	6 No State Guidelines	1 State	2 Legislate IEU's BOCES	3 Legislate Systems Other Than IEU's/BOCES	4 SBE Regulated Coop	5 Other Systems (State Plan)	6 No State Guidelines
AL					Yes	MT				Yes	
AK				Yes		NE		Yes			
AZ				Yes		NV				Yes	
AR			Yes			NH		Yes			
CA	Yes					NJ	Yes				
CO	Yes					NM			Yes		
CT	Yes					NY	Yes				
DE				Yes		NC			Yes		
FL		Yes				ND	Yes				
GA			Yes			OH				Yes	
HI					Yes	OK		Yes			
ID					Yes	OR	Yes				
IL		Yes				PA	Yes				
IN		Yes				RI	Yes				
IA	Yes					SC		Yes			
KS	Yes					SD	Yes				
KY					Yes	TN					Yes
LA	Yes					TX	Yes				
ME			Yes			UT				Yes	
MD					Yes	VT		Yes			
MA	Yes					VA	Yes				
MI	Yes					WA			Yes		
MN	Yes					WV	Yes				
MS				Yes		WI		Yes			
MO	Yes					WY	Yes				
							21	9	6	8	6

Satisfaction with State-wide Governance Systems

In addition to gathering descriptive data on the 50 states, we asked the State-Education-Agency representatives to indicate their level of satisfaction with their representative state-wide systems in order to determine whether there is a relationship between types of governance systems and level of satisfaction with the collaboration/cooperation between and among districts. "Satisfaction" was based on the ability of the cooperatives to assist member districts comply with Pub. Law 94-142.

We found that "no single governance system for interdistrict collaboration [cooperation] emerges as the panacea for ...states seeking to satisfactorily meet the requirements of Pub. Law 94-142" (Fletcher et al., 1990, p. 15).

What this means, then, is that states may choose any governance/administrative structure that they feel appropriate. However, it will not be the governance structure that makes the cooperative work.

Components of the Governance Guidelines

In the second study we investigated the contents of the governance guidelines. Are there certain components of guidelines that distinguish between cooperatives perceived as "very satisfactory" and those perceived as "less satisfactory" by their SEAs? Based on the open-ended items on the initial census, we developed a follow-up questionnaire which contained 12 characteristics that the SEAs had identified as "making their cooperatives work satisfactorily."

Findings

Two characteristics were statistically significant: (a) SEA approves operational procedures of cooperatives prior to establishment and (b) cooperatives function on a single, primary funding base so that local contributions are in addition to the primary revenue base.

Further Research Needed

Two other characteristics were identified for further study: (a) ability of cooperatives to directly employ staff and (b) ability of cooperatives to function independent of state guidelines.

Demographic, Managerial, and Operational Factors

Based on the recommendations of the second study (i.e., need for further research into SEA approval of operational guideline and ability of cooperatives to work independent of SEAs) a third study was designed. This study was designed to look at the operation of cooperatives from the perspective of member districts.

NATIONAL SURVEY OF 350 INTERDISTRICT COOPERATIVES

So as not to compare apples and oranges, two key definitions guided the third study: "interdistrict cooperatives/collaboratives" and "effective interdistrict collaboratives." The definition for interdistrict cooperatives is a combination of definitions from research by Baugh (1987) Fletcher et al., (1988, 1990) and McKibbin (1981). The term for effective interdistrict collaboratives/cooperatives is from work by Cates (1983).

Definitions

Interdistrict cooperatives. Interdistrict collaboratives [cooperatives] are defined as "formal educational organizations, between the state-education-agency level and the local-education-agency level, enabled or mandated by the State for the purpose of sharing costs and services between or among autonomous districts and designed to provide participating districts with joint responsibility for administering and implementing programs.

Effective interdistrict cooperatives. Effective interdistrict cooperatives means that member districts, through formal collaboration, increase their power to act and to achieve their individual and collective goals.

Selection of Subjects

The third study was narrowed, first, to the 37 predominantly rural states, then to the 16 states that have state mandated or enabled systems of interdistrict cooperatives in which governance-systems allow for the self-governance of the cooperatives by the member districts (Fletcher et al, 1988).

Units of analysis. The State Education Agencies in the 16 states were contacted for listings of the interdistrict cooperatives in their states. A total of 350 interdistrict cooperatives were operating in the 16 states as of March 1990 (Table 2).

Table 2

Number of Interdistrict Cooperatives by State

State	Number	State	Number
California	76	New York	41
Colorado	14	North Dakota	23
Kansas	18	South Dakota	10
Maine	3	Vermont	7
Michigan	55	Virginia	9
Nebraska	17	West Virginia	9
New Hampshire	44	Wisconsin	12
New Mexico	10	Wyoming	3
		TOTAL	350

We note that some states have more cooperatives than are listed, but two groups were excluded: (a) cooperatives serving a single district (i.e., intradistrict cooperatives) and (b) cooperatives that in which smaller districts are "satellites" to larger districts and receive services, but do not participate in the administration of the cooperative.

Sampling units. We did not want a self evaluation of the cooperatives, so we did not select the directors of the cooperatives to respond. Instead, we selected the chairpersons of the cooperatives' governing boards or their designees to serve as the sampling units or respondents to the survey. Respondents were either district superintendents (19%) or other central-office administrators (81%).

Response Rate

A 70 percent rate of response was received from the targeted sampling units. To assure that this was a representative sample, a sampling of the "non-respondents" was also conducted. Findings suggest that there were no significant differences between the groups that would suggest that the findings of the study would be different had a higher rate of response been received.

Summary of Results and Discussion

The third study concentrated on three areas of investigation: (a) demographics of cooperatives and their member districts, (b) managerial factors and (c) operational factors. Results of the three sets of questions identify the factors which distinguish between interdistrict cooperatives which are perceived as "very effective" by member/consumer districts and those which are perceived as "less effective" which includes categories of "somewhat effective", "not very effective" and "not at all effective."

Demographic Attributes

Factors investigated. We investigated (a) the location of cooperatives by home state; (b) geographic area covered in square miles;(c) the purpose of collaboration--single or multi purpose; (d) the number of counties and districts served; and (e) the rural nature of the districts served (Demers, 1981; Helge, 1984; Hord, 1980; Silver, 1987).

Findings. We found that there are no significant differences on demographic variables between cooperatives perceived as very effective and those perceived as less effective except for "purpose of collaboration." Cooperatives which serve a multi-purpose for their member districts (e.g., special education and vocational, regular education, media services) tend to be perceived as more effective than cooperatives which have the single purpose of providing special education services.

Managerial Attributes

Factors investigated. Managerial factors address the direction, control, and influence of the use of shared resources of the cooperative (Cates, 1983) and include a) personnel practices, (b) leadership provided, and (c) fiscal management practices as follows:

1. Personnel practices-- Do staff have clearly defined roles and responsibilities? Do cooperatives employ staff directly and, if so, are employees afforded salary benefit packages similar to those offered to professional staff of member districts?

2. Leadership--What proportion of leadership is provided to member districts in the conduct of (a) needs assessments, (b) public relations campaigns, (c) long-range planning, and (d) inservice training?

3. Fiscal management--What are the prevalent practices including: (a) Leadership and technical efforts in seeking new revenue sources; (b) cost-analysis information regarding services provided (i.e., cost-benefits, cost-containment, and cost-economy); (c) cost options for new versus continuing services; and (d) commitment of non-federal funds to the cooperative effort by the membership?

Findings. Managerial factors are clearly part of the internal characteristics which distinguish between interdistrict cooperatives perceived as "very effective" by member districts and those perceived as "less effective."

1. Personnel practices--Cooperatives tend to be perceived more effectively as the proportion of their staffs which have clearly defined roles and responsibilities increase. Interdistrict cooperatives that are perceived as "very effective" have greater than 76% of their staffs with specified roles and responsibilities that have been communicated to members. However, there are no significant differences between very effective and less effective cooperatives regarding their capacities to (a) employ staff directly or (b) provide comparable benefit packages.

2. Leadership--Cooperatives perceived as very effective tend to provide more than 50% of the leadership in (a) needs assessments, (b) public relations campaigns, (c) long-range planning, and (d) inservice training on behalf of their member districts. The mean number of inservice events were not different between the two groups and did not distinguish between cooperatives perceived as very effective and those perceived as less effective.

3. Funds management factors are also characteristics that distinguish between cooperatives perceived as very effective and those perceived as less effective by member districts.

    (a) Very effective districts tend to communicate information to their membership regarding shared resources more than do cooperatives perceived as less effective.

    (b) Very effective cooperatives tend to provide information to their membership about (1) the human and fiscal costs of the collaborative effort, (2) the level of fiscal resources needed to maintain the same or additional program outcomes, (3) the unit cost of jointly sharing costs of collective, aggregated services, and (4) cost options available for new versus continuing programs.

(c) Addressing the commitment of resources to the cooperative efforts, very effective cooperatives tend to receive non-federal revenues from their member districts more often than less effective cooperatives receive non-federal contributions. However, the non-federal revenues need not remain at a consistent level from one year to the next.

Organizational Attributes

Factors investigated. Organizational factors address the process and manner in which autonomous districts form into a collaborative with other districts with interdependent and coordinated parts (Cates, 1983) and include: (a) the role of the governing boards, (b) flexibility of operational procedures, (c) awareness of benefits, and (d) outcomes of membership:

Findings. All organizational factors were found to distinguish between cooperatives perceived as very effective and those perceived as less effective.

1. Governing Boards of cooperatives perceived as very effective tend to have a high level of involvement and act publicly on all major decisions effecting the cooperative.

2. Members of very effective interdistrict cooperatives have strong feelings of mutual ownership of the collaborative effort and perceive the organizational guidelines as flexible and responsive to the changing goals and objectives of the members.

3. Member districts of cooperatives perceived as very effective are very aware of the benefits of membership, and find that their continued commitment of member districts' human and fiscal resources to the collaborative efforts are justified by their increased capacity to act and to achieve their individual and collective goals.

4. Outcomes of membership reported by members of cooperatives perceived as very effective include a much (a) increased capacity for providing direct services, (b) increased access to products and services not otherwise readily available, (c) increased access to a larger pool of resources within

the cooperative and (d) increased linkages with relevant resources brokered by the cooperative on their behalf.

Summary

Clearly the preponderance of factors that distinguish between interdistrict cooperatives that are perceived as "very effective" and those perceived as "less effective" lie within the purview of the operational guidelines and administrative practices of cooperatives and not in outside governance structures or demographics. The one demographic factor that tends to distinguish between (a) very effective and (b) less effective cooperatives is "purpose for collaboration" which may be more an organizational factor than a demographic one.

Recommendations

Results from the third study can be the basis for recommending preferred components of operational guidelines for interdistrict cooperatives whether such cooperatives are established as IEUs, BOCES, or some other administrative structure and whether these operational guidelines are approved at the SEA level or developed independently from the SEAs (Table 3).

Administrators of interdistrict cooperatives and policy makers are encouraged to review the internal workings and capabilities of staff when looking to improve the effectiveness of interdistrict collaborative efforts before dissolving or drastically changing the governance process of existing cooperatives.

As we have come to believe--Cooperatives are like a good soup...

"It's not what you call it.
It's what's in it."

Table 3

Recommended Components of Operational Guidelines for the Governance of Interdistrict Cooperatives

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Purpose for Collaboration

1. Encourage multi-purpose collaboratives.
2. Assure flexibility to accommodate changing goals and objectives of member districts.

Governing Boards

1. Representative membership.
2. Capacity to make shared decisions controlling the activities of the collaboratives.

Collaborative Staff Members

1. Leadership capabilities in personnel development.
2. Leadership capabilities in long-range planning.
3. Leadership capabilities in conducting needs assessments.
4. Leadership capabilities in conducting public relations campaigns.
5. Leadership and technical assistance capabilities in acquiring new funds.
6. Clearly defined and communicated roles and responsibilities.

Funds Management

1. Procedures for receipt of local contributions.
2. Methods for compiling and reporting cost analysis data to member districts including:
    a. cost-benefits
    b. cost-containment
    c. cost economy
    d. cost alternatives for start-up vs. continuing programs.

Program Documentation and Reporting to Members

1. Increased capacity for direct services accrued.
2. Increased access to products and services not otherwise readily available.
3. Increased access to larger pool of resources.
4. Increased linkages with resources outside of the collaborative.

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NRSSC PRESENTATION
Presenter: Robert Swindell
Co-Presenter: Margaret Phelps
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 10:30am - 12:00pm

DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING SCIENCE ENRICHMENT PROGRAMS FOR RURAL FEMALES

A Paper

Prepared For

National Rural and Small Schools Consortium
Annual Conference
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by

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DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING SCIENCE ENRICHMENT PROGRAMS FOR RURAL FEMALES

Introduction

A significant shortage of physical scientists, engineers, and math and computer scientists in the United States has been predicted for the next decade. This gloomy forecast is based on several factors. (Vetter, 1988) First, the traditional pool of white mostly male students which was the source of most of these scientists is expected to show a significant decrease over the next ten years. Additionally the number of American science and engineering majors (S/E) continuing on to obtain PhD degrees has shown a significant drop in recent years.

This is true even though the number of degrees in the physical science and engineering has actually increased since 1980. This increase is attributed primarily to a the increase in the number of doctorates awarded to foreign citizens in the physical and mathematical sciences and engineering. By 1986 nearly one third of of the doctorates awarded in U. S. Universities in math and physical sciences and more than half in engineering were awarded to foreign nationals.

While it is true that many of these doctoral recipients will remain here and become a part of the work force, it is important to realise that potential or actual problems may be associated with too great a reliance on this talent pool. In the future we may not be able to count on these best and brightest individuals to remain in the U.S.A. Their home countries may induce or force them to return in order to stem the "brain drain" from these countries. Furthermore, the utilization of these foreign nationals as teaching assistants and/or professors in our universities can also result in problems. Communication problems associated with language barriers can adversley affect both male and female students. Likewise cultural backgrounds of some foreign students may be at odds with the American view that women are fully capable of pursuing careers in science and engineering. Recent data indicates that there is an increasing incidence of women dropping out of engineering before completing a bachelors degree. This in spite of the fact that women who choose engineering as freshmen are already more highly filtered than their male counterparts, have had higher SAT math scores and typically stay in the top third of their class. Some of this attrition has been attributed to the negative effect of foreign teachers and teaching assistants on undergraduate women.

Additional problems arise from the tendency of new PhD.s in S/E to take industial jobs rather than choose careers in academe. One consequence of this is that the average age of the faculty in the sciences has increased significantly during the past decade due to the lack of new hires.

These concerns must be addressed if the United States is to retain its premier position in scientific achievement in tomorrows world. Since the demographics suggest that the traditional pool of American scientists, white Anglo-Saxon males, is slowly decreasing, it is apparent that we must look elsewhere for replacements for our scientists and engineers. Two major relatively untapped pools of talent that are available include females and minorities.

As recently as 1985 the percentage of female PhD engineers was 2% and in the physical and math sciences less than 8%. Minorities make up only 2% of the PhD.s in engineering, math and sciences. It is projected that by the year 2020 almost half of the American school age children will be identified as black, Hispanic, Asian American, or American Indian. Presumbaly approximately half of all the American population will also be female. It is from these pool that many of our future scientific replacements must come.

Background

In an effort to address these concerns and problems a joint project involving the Department of Chemistry in the College of Arts and Sciences and the Department of Curriculum and Instruction in the College of Education at Tennessee Technological University was undertaken beginning in 1988. This project targeted students in the 9th - 11th grades and focused on involving disadvantaged female, minority and handicapped students from the rural areas surrounding Tennessee Technological University and from inner city schools of Nashville, Knoxville and Chattanooga. A primary objective of the project was to promote interest and development in science of these young students.

The format of the project was derived from experiences obtained from involvement in previous workshops conducted in Clay County Tennessee during the summers of 1986-87. (Scott, 1986) All participants were volunteers who were interested in science and were willing to devote a minimum of 4 hours of time each Saturday for a period of 6-8 weeks. Approximately thirty students participated in the program each summer. In addition to these students 4-6 classroom teachers from the Clay Co. school system were present for each session. The program began in as a cooperative effort between the Clay County Schools and the TTU Department of Chemistry. This program was designed to increase scientific interest among disadvantaged females and minorities, grades 7-11, in science. Activities for this project included short, intensive instructional periods utilizing computer assisted instruction, audio-visual aids and extensive hands-on laboratory experiences designed to relate scientific principles to real-world situations. Additionally, interactions with role-model scientists and visits to nearby industrial, governmental and private scientific and research facilities were conducted in order to increase scientific career awareness.

Since the student's knowledge and understanding of any given science concept was expected to be, at best, marginal it was imperative that explicit and detailed explanations of the scientific principles, procedures, and most importantly, safety considerations appropriate to each laboratory session be given prior to entering the laboratory. To accomplish this each student was provided with appropriate printed explanatory material relevant to each exercise or experiment to be performed. Prior to the beginning of each session, discussion of the topic to be considered was made by one of the University faculty participants to the participants. Extensive use was made of demonstrations, audio-visual aids, and computer assisted learning. Sufficient time for questions and clarification was allotted at each session.

A selected series of laboratory experiments was performed by each participant. These experiments were carefully chosen in terms of appropriateness to the topic, effectiveness for learning, safety, potential for increasing interest, availability for future use at participants schools and simplicity. The format of the sessions was designed to expose the students to some interesting and enjoyable aspects of science. To accomplish this Chemistry Professors from Tennessee Technological University in Cookeville TN. used a variety of chemical demonstrations and supervised hands-on laboratory experiments in which each student participated. The general format included preliminary discussion and demonstrations of chemical or physical phenomena and explanations of the day's experiments. Students were divided into small groups and assigned to work stations. Each group of students was supervised by class-room teachers from Clay Co. while over-all supervision of the experiments was done by the University chemistry professors. After completion of the experiments the participants discussed the principles demonstrated in the laboratory. Following the completion of each laboratory session a period for evaluation and discussion of results was held in which all faculty and students participated.

During the project opportunity for each student participant to meet and discuss items of interest with successful female role models was presented. Interactions included both group and individual sessions. Scientists were selected from private industry, academic and governmental sectors and were carefully chosen for their interest and ability to interact with the junior high age group. Examples included female and/or minority research scientists, physicians and other medically related professionals as well as successful professionals in vocations closely, but not directly related to traditional science careers, but requiring an appreciable amount of scientific training or knowledge.

Conclusions. Student interest was maintained at a high level throughout the program. An increased interest in science was evidenced by both verbal and written responses to evaluation instruments (Figure 1). Evaluation of student responses to self-image questions indicated a trend toward a more positive attitude toward self (Figure 2). Classroom teachers gave positive comments and indicated interest in incorporating some of the experiments into their own classroom activities.

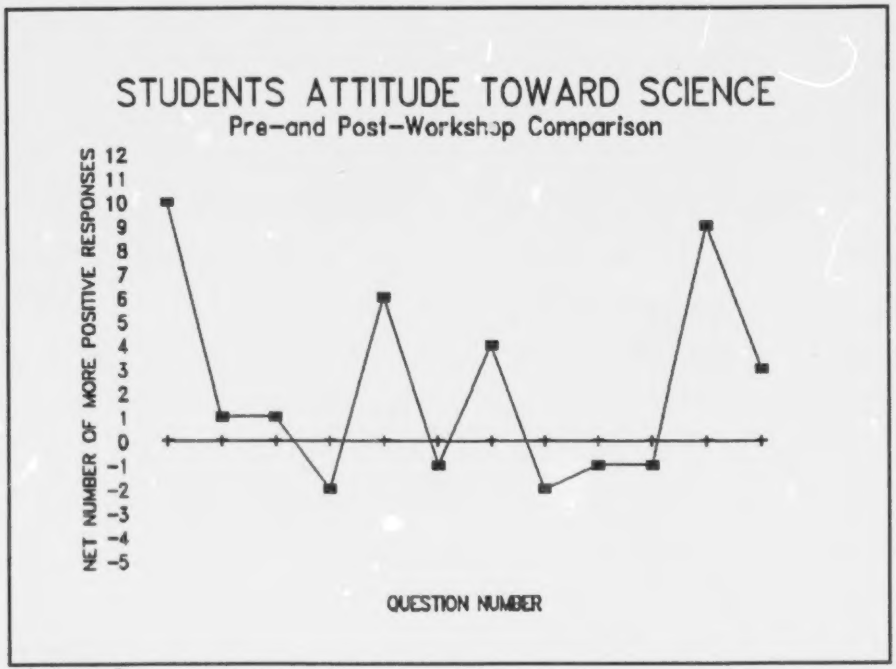

Figure 1.

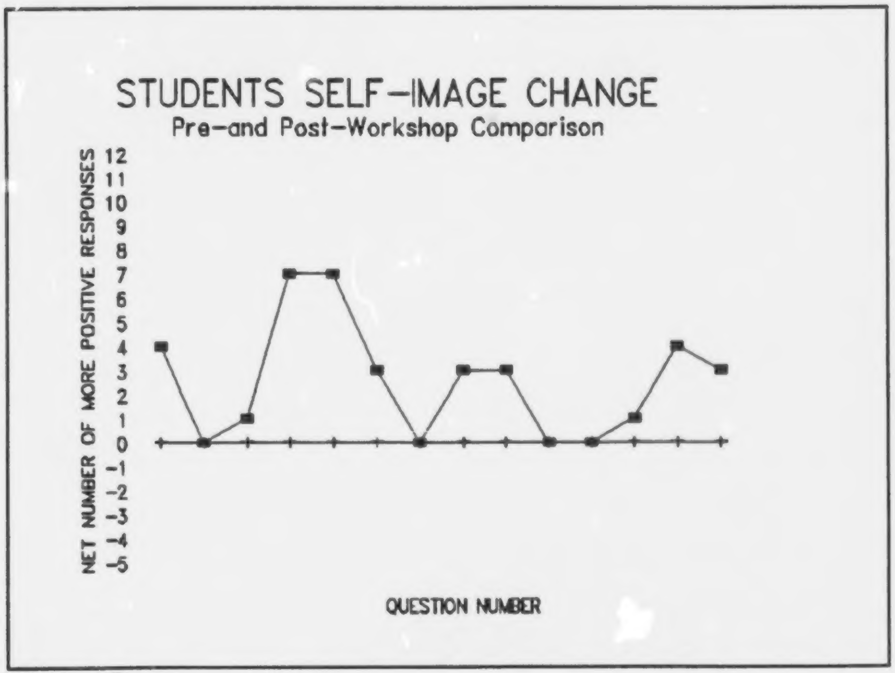

Figure 2

Expanding Disadvantaged Student Access to Science Enrichment Programs.

In an effort to expand the type of programming provided in the Clay County project to a wider audience, TTU applied to the Tennessee Department of Vocational Education for funding to initiate a science enrichment program for disadvantaged and minority females. Now in its third year, this program consists of three weekends and a ten-day summer program for approximately twenty-five high school females, primarily from rural high schools in economically disadvantaged communities. A small number of minority students from urban schools also participate. The program includes formal instruction in biology, physics, chemistry, mathematics, and computer applications. All classes are laboratory centered with maximum hands-on activities. Other components include female role models, exploration of the arts, field trips, interaction with university students and faculty, personal development, and campus life. The schedule for the most recent weekend is presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3

TYPICAL WEEKEND SCHEDULE

Friday, January 25

5:00	Registration on TTU Campus
5:30	Pizza Dinner, Get Acquainted, Program Overview (Staff present)
6:30	Computer Applications on the MacIntosh
8:30	Depart for Appalachian Center for Crafts
9:30	Recreation directed by Counselors

Saturday, January 26

7:00	Breakfast at Craft Center
7:45	Depart for TTU Main Campus
8:30	Chemistry/Physics Laboratory (electroplating,
11:45	Buffet Lunch
1:00	Mathematics (Solving word problems)
2:15	Biology Laboratory (Dissection of sharks and fetal chickens)
4:30	Self-defense for females
6:00	Dinner
7:00	Depart for Cookeville Drama Center (Steele Magnolias)
10:00	Depart for Craft Center

Sunday, January 27

7:30	Breakfast
8:15	Depart for TTU Main Campus
9:30	Research Design
11:30	Buffet Lunch
12:30	Wrap-up and Evaluation
1:00	Depart for Home

The staff for the program includes:

Director--Director of Rural Education
Co-Director--Chair of Chemistry Department
Program Director--Faculty Member in Gifted Education
Program Secretary--Rural Education Secretary
Program Facilitator in Charge of Arrangements--C&I Secretary
Chemistry/Physics Instructor--Faculty Member in Chemistry
Biology Instructor--High School Biology Teacher
Mathematics Instructor--Faculty Member in Remedial Studies
Computer Instructor--Public School Special Education Teacher
Counselors--A married couple and 2 female college students

Classes are held on the main campus with field trips (primarily in the summer) within 100 miles. Housing is provided wherever space is available on the main campus or other University facilities. One weekend the students stay at a State Park and most of the classes are conducted there. Transportation during the program is provided in University vans with the counselors and/or instructors doing the driving. Meals are provided in the University cafeteria or are prepared by the staff. The only costs to participants are transporation to and from the program and incidental spending money.

On the weekend for which the schedule is presented there were twenty girls who attended representing twelve high schools in ten school systems. They included two Blacks, one Oriental, and seventeen Caucasians. Each had been selected by a high school teacher or counselor as having academic potential in science but having some hinderance to post-secondary study in science. Some were from high schools with limited offerings, some were from families who do not encourage advanced study, most were from economically disadvantaged homes, and one was an international student. For some of the students this was their first participation in the program; others are nearing the end of their third year of participation. Once selected, students may remain in the program through the summer they graduate from high school. The "old" girls assist the "new" girls in getting acquainted, finding classrooms, and becoming a part of the program.

Evaluation Results. At the close of each of the two previous summer sessions, a 20 item Test of Science Understanding was administered to the participants. The mean results for each group and a national sample of 17 year olds are provided in Table 1. Considering that our group consists of disadvantaged and minority females, their comparative scores are encouraging.

Table 1

Science Understanding by Categories

Area	Summer 1989	Summer 1990	17 Yr Olds
Everyday Science Facts	95.6%	93.8%	99.9%
Understand Simple Scientific Principles	95.6%	96.3%	96.7%
Apply Basic Scientific Information	84.4%	71.3%	80.8%
Integrate Specialized Scientific Information	60.0%	45.0%	70.5%

Each group also was administered an Attitude Toward Science instrument. Mean responses ranged from 3.7 to 4.6 on a 5.0 scale on items positive towards science.In addition a questionnaire was administered in which the participants were asked to identify which of 25 jobs could be best filled by women, men, or either. The subjects appeared to rate positions that required advanced formal study as being suitable for either sex. Some traditional positions (such as farmer and cheerleader) were noted as best for a particular sex. Science careers were felt to be appropriate for either sex.

At the end of each session, the participants are asked to write an evaluation of the program. They give candid reactions to all activities and to the staff. Except for minor suggestions which we are usually able to implement or facilities problems beyond our control, reactions are highly positive. It is particularly rewarding to see "our girls" on campus as freshmen, confident and successful in their chosen majors.

Recommendations

For anyone interested in starting a program similar to this one, we would offer the following suggestions--in no particlar order.

Funding. If one is going to serve disadvantaged and/or minority students, external funding is critical. Possible sources include scientific industries, museums, foundations, or Carl Perkins Act funds. If students have to pay their own way, the program will serve primarily affluent students. Such programs on our campus are called "Gifted, Talented, and RICH".

Staffing. The leadership must be knowledgeable of program objectives and dedicated to achieving them. It is reasonable for the University to contribute some administrative costs (in the name of good will and recruitment) while the program provides some extra pay for the leadership. Personnel funds should be primarily directed toward the instructors, support staff and counselors. Instructors should like young people, be interesting teachers, and be highly knowledgeable of their content areas. We prefer females who can serve as role models as well as instructors although two of our best instructors are men who teach in area schools. The more "hands-on" the classes, the better they are liked. We attempt to keep the core staff of instructors and counselors as long as possible while varying the role models and enrichment people. For counselors we use mature college students in science or education. Having a married couple provides for additional security when the students are housed off-campus. The counselors sleep and eat with the girls, coordinate recreation activities, and get them from place to place.

Student Recruitment. At first letters were sent to a science teacher in each of the high schools in the service region and to the science supervisors in Knoxville, Nashville, and Chattanooga. From this we have developed a group of teachers and counselors who understand the goals of the program and who refer students to us. We began attempting to include two girls from each high school participating. Now we serve one to four from a single school. Participants sometimes recruit friends for the program. Program publicity has resulting in more requests that we are able to accommodate. We keep a school's students in the program

Facilities. University dormitories on the main campus are the easiest to use because they are inexpensive and no transporation is needed. On our campus, dormitories are only available in the summer. State parks are great if you can have a lodge in which you can house, feed, and instruct students. Classes should be held in the setting where those college classes are held. The girls loved using the new Mac Lab which was only opened a few days before they came to campus. In Chemistry and Biology, they use the same lab, equipment, and supplies as the college students.

Meals. Friday night pizza has become a tradition. (The girls like plain cheese or cheese and pepperoni only!!!) When weather permits we do picnics or cookouts. Breakfast is usually cereal, fruit, juice, milk, and rolls served informally where they sleep. The girls prefer meals we prepare (that includes Kentucky Fried Chicken) to eating in the cafeteria. They eat more for less when we do it ourselves. Doing so requires a staff person who is willing to shop, prepare, serve, and clean-up.

Field Trips. Field trips have included Oak Ridge National Laboratories, NASA Space Center at Huntsville, and a horse breeding farm in Shelbyville owned and operated by a woman. Each of these was done during the longer summer program. The spring session is held at Standing Stone State Park with ecology field and stream excurions within the park.

Enrichment. We like to include a wide variety of activities including plays, a trip to the Cookeville Mall each summer, art instruction, sing and dance-a-longs, self-defense, college basketball and football games, putt-putt golf, volleyball, Boys State Governor's Ball, swimming, games, demonstrations by artists at the Appalachian Center for Crafts, and whatever activity is available at a reasonable (or no) price.

Role Models. Each female that works with the program shares her personal and professional experiences with the students. Through this the girls become aware how decisions about marriage, family, and career are reflected in lifestyle and that there are many options available to them.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Randy Morris
Co-Presenter: Bob Markve
Eric Rudrud
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

Supported Employment for Students At Risk Within Rural Settings

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Abstract

Developing effective vocational rehabilitation, supported employment, and community living programs within rural settings is often difficult due to the lack of services and trained staff available within rural communities, the great distances between communities and job sites, and small and homogeneous economies. Black Hills Special Services Cooperative (BHSSC) serves a geographic area of 10,600 square miles in western South Dakota. The north to south and east to west boundaries exceed 200 miles, with one major city of 80,000 people. The area is characterized by small rural communities whose economies are primarily based in agriculture, mining, and forest products industries. To overcome the constraints in providing effective vocational education and job placement services, BHSSC developed the entrepreneur model of supported employment. The entrepreneur model calls for the creation of new businesses, within rural communities, which provide meaningful work in integrated employment settings.

The goal of the entreprenurial model is to increase the diversity, quantity, and quality of paid, integrated work opportunities to students with disabilities. BHSSC utilizes a zero reject model for services and believes all individuals, regardless of severity of handicap, can make a successful transition from school to integrated competitive or supported employment.

Obstacles for Rural Service Delivery

The major challenge facing rural communities is the implementation of effective models of employment and residential services that allow individuals with severe disabilities to enter and maintain meaningful employment. Characteristics of rural settings often limit the utility of existing supported employment models. These characteristics are:

1) Low population density resulting in a high concentration of individuals with handicapping conditions in rural towns where supportive services are available;

2) Great distance between service centers which limits the utility of work crews and independent placements because of the travel time and distance between sites, i.e. supervision when placements are 50 miles apart, the economics of obtaining a contract for services when travel to the work site takes one hour.

3) A small and homogeneous economic base which limits the types of jobs available, i.e., agricultural based communities have fewer manufacturing opportunities than an industrial based community. In South Dakota, 82% of businesses employ less than 9 employees, with 91.4% of businesses having fewer than 20 employees. Additionally, since rural economies are often limited to a few businesses, the variety of employment options is often limited. Thus, it is often difficult to meet the unique needs of individuals with severe handicapping conditions within existing businesses.

4. Lack of trained staff. Many rural communities are not able to attract staff trained in supported employment. This is often due to scarcity of programs; low salaries in rural communities; and lack of employment opportunities for other family members.

BHSSC Program Overview

These obstacles in rural communities, can be overcome through the development of innovative cooperative partnerships between public and state agencies and the private sector. Black Hills Special Services Cooperative, the South Dakota Section for Special Education, Division of Vocational Education, Department of Vocational Rehabilitation and private business and industry worked cooperatively to develop a comprehensive vocational education and training program that would assist students at risk in the transition from school to employment. Components of the program include:

1. Working partnerships with business communities

BHSSC coordinated with local business and industry to secure work experience, on-the-job training, supported work sites, and competitive employment for handicapped and disadvantaged students, and adults with disabilities. These partnerships have provided necessary transitional and supported employment for BHSSC students, and have also resulted in major economic development within several rural communities. BHSSC has placed many students with numerous other businesses through out the region and continues to explore new endeavors.

2. Vocational Special Needs Programs

BHSSC's vocational special needs program encompasses day and residential services, itinerant services to public school secondary programs, and consultation with area's post-secondary vocational school. The day and residential programs serve approximately 152 students with special needs. Ninety five of the students are aged 16 years and over, and are involved in the vocational special needs program. These students have a variety of handicapping conditions ranging from students with severe and multiple mental, physical, sensory, medical and/or behavioral handicaps to students with severe behavioral or emotional handicaps with mild to moderate impairments of cognitive functioning.

3. Vocational Assessment Units

BHSSC currently operates three vocational evaluation units that have a full-range of assessment capabilities. Assessment in the areas of work skills and abilities, cognitive and motor functioning, vocational aptitude and interest testing, and career awareness is available. The Vocational Assessment Center, which is located in Sturgis, SD provides services in house and on a referral basis. Two mobile units were established to expand vocational assessment services throughout the state of South Dakota and surrounding geographic areas.

4. Career Learning Center

The Career Learning Center provides vocational counseling, job development, job training, and rehabilitation services to recently graduated, post secondary individuals, and unemployed adults in the western region of S.D.. The Career Learning Center maintains partnerships with South Dakota Department of Labor/Job Service, S.D. Department of Rehabilitation, Western Dakota Vocational Technical Institute, Black Hills State University, South Dakota School of Mines, National College of Business, and the University of South Dakota and South Dakota State University extension programs at Ellsworth A.F.B. in Rapid City. Participants enter into a program of instruction which includes basic and remedial education, life-coping skills, and job-seeking and maintaining skills. The final stage of the program is a self-directed search for employment.

5. Secondary Alternative Program

BHSSC's Secondary Alternative Program provides alternative education for junior and senior high aged students who have/could not succeed in traditional secondary programs. Approximately 54 students are currently placed within the Alternative Program. Students are referred to the Alternative Program through local school districts, State Department of Social Services, Court Services, Bureau of Indian Affairs, and other state and federal agencies. Approximately 80% of Alternative Program students reside within BHSSC residential programs. The majority of students have mild to moderate cognitive impairments and all students present mild to severe behavioral and/or emotional disorders. Individual Education Plans are developed for students within the alternative program, addressing educational, vocational, independent living, and community integration needs.

6. Transitional/Independent Living Programs

BHSSC provides a variety of residential options for students placed within the Secondary Alternative Program. These options are viewed as temporary until the student can return to their home community. Within the residential alternatives is a continuum of services which follows the practice of least restrictive alternative. That is as the students demonstrate their ability to live more independently, they are given the opportunity to do so, with supervision being gradually faded out. Included among BHSSC's residential alternatives are:

Attention Center - residential group treatment for up to 16 adolescents aged 12 to 18 years. The Attention Center provides a therapeutic milieu for youth experiencing emotional difficulties.

Small Group Foster Homes - provides individualized treatment for 4-6 students in need of a transitional step between group residential treatment and independent living or traditional family foster care.

Independent Living Program - utilizes a supervised apartment for individuals aged 16-21 years, who are in need of independent living training.

Family Foster Care - provides traditional family living for individual students. Family foster homes receive support and intervention through BHSSC.

Independent Apartments with Follow Along Services-Students who have completed the Independent Living Program and are involved in supported employment, can make the transition to their own apartments. These students continue to receive follow-along support through BHSSC.

Entreprenurial Model

Barriers which effect transition from school to integrated community employment include:

-Individualization of training and job site adaptations to meet specific needs of workers;

-The ability of persons with severe disabilities to transition from secure and structured environments to more independent and demanding environments;

-The lack of resources and options for long-term ongoing support in the workplace;

-The willingness of employers to hire individuals who may not produce or achieve at a full competitive level;

-The willingness and ability of employers to provide accommodations with in the workplace for job coaches and other adaptations of work environment;

-The tolerance of the employer and co-workers in regards to inappropriate behaviors.

BHSSC created a work environment which was designed to overcome these specific obstacles by creating new businesses, that are operated by BHSSC, that employ students in an integrated work environment. To date, the model has been implemented in four sites serving approximately 150 special education students. Students who participate in the program exhibit a variety of challenges, i.e., emotional/behavioral disabilities, mental retardation, autism, multiple disabilities, etc. The severity of disability condition ranges from mild to severe/profound, see Table 1.

Table 1 Description of Students

SEX (N=168)		Age: (N=75)	
male	120	12 yr old	3
female	48	13	1
		14	6
		15	10
		16	12
Ethnicity (N=163)		17	19
Black	3	18	13
Caucasian	113	19	5
Hispanic	1	20	4
Native American	46	21	6

Disabilities (N=143, 120 have 2 or more disabilities,duplicated count)	
Attention Deficit	8
Autism	21
EBD	65
Traumatic Brain Injury	1
Learning Disability	24
Mental Retardation	82
Mild/Moderate	41
Severe/Profound	41
Health	9

Entrepreneurial sites:

Textile manufacturing BHSSC textile manufacturing site is a result of a partnership developed in 1985 with Dragons Are Too Seldom, Inc. a South Dakota-based corporation which designs and markets bathtub puppets. Approximately 30-40 non-handicapped employees work side-by-side with individuals with handicaps. Approximately 82 students are involved in supported employment through textile manufacturing, working from one to six hours per day. The amount of time spent in supported employment is determined by the individual's interdisciplinary team and unique needs. Students assist in the manufacturing, assembly, packaging, and shipping of a variety of textile products. The most notable product is the Tub Buddies @ bathtub puppets and Snooz Zoo products.

Furniture Manufacturing BHSSC's partnership with Child's Play, Inc., includes the production of children's furniture. The furniture is built at a manufacturing site in Sturgis, SD The goal of these programs is to train individuals in wood working and carpentry skills for placement in other industrial settings. Furniture manufacturing employs 11 students and 2 non-handicapped supervisors. A children's furniture line is manufactured and distributed nation wide. Students are integrated into all aspects of construction, upholstery, packaging, and shipping of the units.

Wood Working. BHSSC partnerships with Child's Play, GSC International, and Glenwood have resulted in the production of several wood products. These include wood blocks, wooden toys, gunstocks, and childrens wooden furniture. This production facilitiy has included disabled veterans who receive services at the Ft. Meade VA. Fifty five veterans, 15 students, and 10 non-handicapped coworkers are employed.

Sample wage and hour data for students enrolled the project are provided in table 2.

Table 2 Wage and hour data for students

Hourly Wage (N=109)		Amount	N
Mean	$2.05	$0.00 - 1.00	25
Range	$.41 - $5.50	1.01 - 2.00	31
		2.01 - 3.00	21
		3.01 ≥	32
Hours per Week (N=85)		Hours/Wk	N
Mean	14.3 hrs.	0 - 5	16
Range	2 - 20 hrs.	6 - 10	19
		11 - 15	17
		16 ≥	33

Summary

Existing models for supported employment may not be well-suited to many rural areas. The entrepreneurial model may provide a suitable approach to the provision of supported employment services in areas where other models have limited utility. This is not to say that the use of other models should be abandoned. BHSSC, for example, continues to utilize the individual placement model of supported employment, when appropriate, for special education students throughout the twelve member districts.

At this time, preliminary data suggest that the entrepreneurial model may be a viable approach to providing supported employment opportunities in rural areas. Using the entrepreneurial model, BHSSC has provided work sites for students who might otherwise have been unemployed. Since BHSSC is the employer, the work environment can be more accommodating, compared to a private business setting, to meet the unique needs of students. For example students who display verbal and physical aggression in the work setting, risk being fired and jeopardizing future placements. The staff at BHSSC are able to provide support services necessary to deal with the student in the work setting. Similarly, students who require more intensive training and/or supports than are available in many employment settings can also be served.

Furthermore, the work sites provided are close to ideal in terms of work-force integration. Non-handicapped employees provide appropriate models for social skills, work habits, and co-worker interactions.

Finally, this model appears to be fiscally responsible. BHSSC workers engage in meaningful work and earn wages. Further, the model contributes to rural economic development by hiring workers from the local communities. The BHSSC entrepreneurial sites demonstrate that properly supported workers with handicapping conditions can be profitably employed in rural areas.

Jc 730

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Ellen U. WIlliams
Co-Presenter: Veronica Gold
Steven C. Russell
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

Ellen U. Williams, Ph.D
Veronica Gold, Ph.D
Steven C. Russell, Ph.D

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A Teacher Training Mentor Model in Rural Special Education

INTRODUCTION

The teaching profession has begun to address the need for beginning teacher assistance programs for all first year educators. In addition to the typical problems facing most entry level teachers, those novice teachers who are in rural special education settings may be facing additional problems compounding their adjustment to the profession. Matthes and Carlson (1978) point out that recruitment and retention of good teachers are serious problems for rural schools. An added problem for rural schools is the high attrition rate for special education personnel. Helge (1979) reported an average annual turnover rate of 30-50 percent among rural special educators. How can rural school systems attract and retain quality special education staff?

Massey and Crosby (1983) believe that one solution for ameliorating these recruitment/retention problems is to better prepare teachers for handling special education problems in rural environments. Marrs (1984) supports this suggestion, noting that rural special education personnel who are specifically trained to work with rural handicapped programs will have greater personal and professional success. Marrs further encourages rural special education preservice preparation programs to have more focus on rural course content and experience.

One such attempt to provide this emphasis in rural special education preservice training is found in a federal grant project at Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio. This training project, Project RAISE (Rural America Institute for Special Educators) is a graduate level program that offers rural focus for content and experiential learning. This project includes a mentor program for entry level special education teachers in rural schools.

In Support of Teacher Assistance Programs for First Year Teachers

The decade of the 1980's was filled with numerous national reports highlighting suggested school reforms. National reports such as the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (1985), the Holme's Group (1986), the Carnegie Forum (1986), and the Association of Teacher Educators (1987) all suggest that these school reforms include plans for providing assistance to the first year teacher. If these neophyte teachers are not supported with assistance and support, they may become disillusioned and leave the teaching profession. Schlechty and Vance (1983) estimate that approximately 30 percent of beginning teachers are not teaching two years later from their initial employment date. They further

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postulate that 40-50 percent leave during their first seven years of teaching. Howey and Zimpher (1987) report a similar dropout rate of young teachers nearing 50 percent during the first five years of teaching. If these figures are indicative of national attrition rates for beginning teachers, the teaching profession must accept the charge of ameliorating or increasing the retention rate for entry level teachers. The teaching profession must identify the causes of these mass exoduses as well as develop plans to reduce this phenomena of "neophyte teacher flight".

Morey (1990) cites the following reasons why teachers leave the classroom: conditions of work; salary level; lack of career ladders; non-teaching assignments; class size; and, lack of adequate resources. Moran (1990) suggests that beginning teachers are often unprepared for the degree of expertise expected of them and unprepared for the rigor and complexity of the classroom. Moran notes that while the beginning teacher is seeking to "feel at home" in the teaching profession, they are all too often sensing dislocation and professional and social isolation. She proposes that beginner peer support groups be formed where neophyte teachers are provided with seasoned mentors. Henry (1989) sees the following three types of support as promising for assisting beginning teachers: mentor support, peer support, and university support. He prioritizes these support systems by referring to the mentor support system as the most typical and most critical component of teacher induction programs.

In Support of Mentoring Programs for First Year Teachers

According to Odell (1990a) historical and literary works characterize the term "mentor" in the same contexts with advisors, helpers, sponsors, one who offers insight and guidance, one who is older and more experienced, and one who is committed to help younger less experienced persons. Mentors have also been viewed as guides to help people grow up. The original illustration of "mentor" can be found in the poem, Odyssey by Homer (Fitzgerald, 1961). When Odysseus goes off to war, he asks his loyal friend Mentor to look after his son, Telemachus. Mentor acts as a guide for Telemachus as he grows up. Mentor committed time and energy to guide Telemachus to a point of self-reliance where he could think and act on his own. Thus, the term "mentor" as first seen in Odyssey has come to be associated with the role of modeling a standard/style of behavior in an intentional nurturing, insightful, supportive process (Anderson and Shannon, 1988). Kay (1990) describes mentoring as a current educational practice for beginning teacher assistance programs in which experienced educators are assigned as mentors for neophyte teachers. The role of the mentor is to assist the new teacher in making an effective and non-traumatic transition into full-time teaching. Waters and Bernhardt (1989) categorize the roles of mentor teachers as providing the following: 1) orientation and resources; 2) psychological support; 3) curriculum and instructional advice; 4) classroom modeling; 5) observation and feedback; 6) assistance in implementing a specific instruction program; and 7) assessment. Odell (1990a) has compiled a sample list of mentor roles as drawn from he literature on mentoring. Sample mentoring roles include the following: trusted guide, teacher, sponsor, host, counselor, supporter, guru, advisor, coach, trainer, positive role model, protector, patron, challenger, confidant and master teacher. Mentoring programs in teaching assume that beginning teachers have much to learn about teaching. Teacher mentor programs usually begin in the early stages of teaching and continue as a lifelong process of development.

Obviously, there is a need to use care in selecting the mentor teachers. According to Huling-Austin, Putman, and Galvez-Hjornevik (1985), the most powerful and cost-effective intervention in a teacher induction program is the assignment of an appropriate support teacher. Butler (1987) identified a number of the following personal mentor characteristics as essential to the development of a positive mentor-protege relationship: 1) prior experiences in assisting student teachers and novice teachers; 2) years of experience as a classroom teacher; 3) willingness to commit time to the mentee early in the relationship; 4) ability to conceptualize the mentor's role as needing to change based on the progress of the mentee; and 5) possessing high status within school/profession. Huffman and Leak (1986) add the following two mentor variables as valuable: having a mentor who teaches the same grade level/subject matter; and, providing adequate formal and informal time. Because the mentor teacher's role is so extensive, it is recommended that mentors be trained on how to provide support and assistance (Huling-Austin, & Murphy, 1987). Kilgore and Kozisek (1988) support the notion of training mentors as well as providing school support, recognition and reward for the mentor's efforts.

Odell (1990a) offers the following three goals for mentoring beginning teachers:

Goal 1: To provide beginning teachers with guidance from mentor teaches so as to promote the professional development of beginning teachers.

Goal 2: To provide beginning teachers with support and information from mentor teachers so as to reduce the concerns of beginning teachers, and

Goal 3: To increase through mentoring, the retention of beginning teachers.

Odell (1990a) also offers the following phases for the teacher mentoring process:

Phase 1: Developing the relationship (Conveying support and assistance for the mentee)

Phase 2: Determining the content (What does the mentee need?)

Phase 3: Applying effective styles and strategies, and selecting styles of mentoring (Optimizing mentor/mentee communications and interactions).

Phase 4: Disengaging the relationship (Directing the mentee to move toward self-reliance).

The ultimate goal of the mentor should be to prepare new teachers to become "automentors" who mentor themselves on a continuum toward professional actualization (Odell, 1990b).

Application of the Process for Rural Special Education

Project RAISE (Rural America Institute for Special Educators) is a three year federal grant awarded by the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services to the Department of Special Education at Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio. The primary focus of Project RAISE is to enhance the service delivery of rural special education by training preservice and practicing teachers to focus on rural concepts, concerns, problems and solutions. The training project involves a one year graduate program which includes the following components:

1) University graduate level coursework which focuses on knowledge, skills, attitudes and values related to rural special education service delivery;
2) Practica and field assignments related to rural special education service delivery;
3) Field-based research projects related to rural special education; and
4) A mentoring model for first year teachers in rural special education.

Ten participants (five preservice special education teachers and five practicing rural special education teachers) are selected through a screening and referral process. Figure 1 provides an overview of criteria used to select the mentors and mentees.

Insert Figure 1 about here

In the Spring, each of the five special education preservice teachers are paired with a practicing veteran special education teacher in a rural school setting. Through student teaching, practica experiences or field placements, the paired mentor/mentee teams begin to develop the mentor/mentee relationship by exploring a bonding process to insure compatibility and effective communication levels. University supervision and support are provided by the Project coordinators and by the school administrative staff at the selected rural sites. Consultation is provided by Project RAISE coordinators for Project participants on an individual as well as a team basis. Project coordinators also work to promote greater support and understanding on the part of the school administration toward the mentor/mentee process.

In the Summer semester, all five teams begin their university graduate level coursework in rural special education. The coursework includes information on teaching strategies and delivery of service for special education in rural environments. Heavy emphasis is placed on consultation and collaboration skills with teachers, administration, support staff, ancillary personnel, parents and community. In the Fall semester, the teams engage in a combination of university course and field-based experiences. The coursework and field experiences are designed to promote the mentor/mentee relationship. Joint projects for mentor/mentee are frequently assigned. A similar coursework and field-based format is applied to the following Spring semester. Figure 2 provides a listing of Project RAISE coursework.

Insert Figure 2 about here

At the end of one year, the five preservice teachers and the five practicing teachers will have completed a research project on rural special education as well as the course requirements for a Masters Degree in Special Education. The practicing teachers will be able to obtain the degree without giving up a contracted job for the year. The preservice teachers will obtain the degree and will be able to purchase one year of service toward the state retirement system.

At the end of one year, both will have gained new knowledge and skills relative to teaching in rural special education, completed a Masters degree in Education, and engaged in a mentor/mentee process that may increase the likelihood of the first year teachers staying in rural education, in special education and in the education profession. Figure 3 offers a schedule of Project RAISE mentor/mentee activities.

Insert Figure 3 about here

CONCLUSION

Teacher preparation programs and the public school systems have a responsibility to foster the growth of beginning teachers. Without beginning teacher assistance programs, neophyte teachers may become disillusioned and frustrated with their early teaching experiences and opt to leave the profession. There are high attrition rates among beginning teachers and among special education teachers in rural settings. Project RAISE (Rural American Institute for Special Educators) is attempting to address these attrition problems by providing a mentoring program for first year teachers with veteran special education teachers in rural schools. The mentor/mentee work together in a graduate program in rural special education that involves coursework, field assignments, team teaching and research in rural special education. University supervision and collaboration are provided by Project RAISE coordinators throughout this process. The success of this mentoring model is dependent on numerous variables including the following: selection of beginning teachers; support of school administrative and supervisory staff; acceptance of teacher induction programs by other school personnel; training of support/mentor teachers; effective communication between university supervisory staff, veteran teachers, neophyte teachers and the school community; effective needs assessments of beginning and veteran teachers; and providing adequate coaching for the beginning teacher (Shulman &

Colbert, 1987).

Teacher induction programs and mentoring programs just don't happen. They need to be collaboratively planned, organized and evaluated. If mentoring programs are to succeed in reducing the attrition rates of neophyte teachers in rural special education, then university training programs and public school systems must invest in the future of the beginning teacher assistance programs and in the future of beginning teachers.

NOTE: Project RAISE is a federal grant (Grant #H029J90015) from the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services, to Drs. S. Russell, V. Gold, & E.U. Williams, Bowling Green State University.

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Figure 1

Selection Criteria for Project RAISE
Mentor/Mentee Teams

Mentees: Five mentees will be selected for each academic year. The preferred criteria includes the following:

1. Majors in any area of special education teacher training
2. Senior status and graduating at the end of Spring semester for the current academic year
3. Demonstrates academic proficiency (A "B" average or better)
4. Prior rural experience
5. Good communication skills (A positive interview with Project coordinators)
6. Signs of adaptability and flexibility

Mentors: Once the five mentees are selected, the five mentors will be selected. The preferred criteria includes the following:

1. Certified teachers presently teaching in rural special education.
2. Minimum of three years of teaching experience in rural special education.
3. Possessing a Bachelors Degree - desirous of a Masters Degree in Education.
4. Highly recommended by superiors for the mentor/mentee program.
5. Demonstrates a potential for completing graduate coursework (A "B" or better in undergraduate coursework).
6. Signs of good communications skills.
7. Signs of adaptability and flexibility.

Figure 2

Project RAISE Coursework for Graduate Degree in Rural Special Education

Statistics in Education
Research in Education
Problems and Issues for Personnel in Rural Special Education
Foundations and Instructional Strategies for Rural Special Education
Professional Development Seminar in Special Education
Advanced Instructional Design for Rural Special Education
Collaboration for Related Services - Part I
Collaboration for Related Services - Part II
Practicum in Rural Special Education - Part I
Practicum in Rural Special Education - Part II
Thesis Research

Figure 3

Project RAISE Mentor/Mentee Model: Scheduled Activities

Spring Semester

Mentee	Selection of preservice special education teachers (5)
Mentor	Selection of practicing rural special education teachers (5)
Mentor Mentee	Practica/Field Experience between practicing and preservice teachers (Exploration of bonding between mentor and mentee -- with University supervision).

Summer Semester

Mentor Mentee	Practicing and Preservice teachers begin Masters Program coursework in Rural Special Education.

Fall Semester

Mentor Mentee	Practicing and Preservice teachers team teach in the same rural class and continue graduate coursework in Rural Special Education.

Spring Semester

Mentor Mentee	Practicing and Preservice teachers team teach, continue graduate coursework and conduct rural research project.

Summer Semester

Mentor Mentee	Practicing and Preservice teachers complete rural research project and graduate with Masters Degree in Special Education.

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Dennis R. Knapczyk
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

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COLLABORATIVE TEACHER TRAINING USING DISTANCE EDUCATION AND TECHNOLOGY

ABSTRACT

Improving the skills of school personnel already teaching in rural communities will require that universities develop new approaches for structuring and delivering coursework and training experiences. The success of such activities will depend upon the ability of universities and school corporations to establish partnerships in devising models of training and in carrying out staff development. Collaborative training activities that utilize distance education and interactive communication technology can provide flexibility in organizing and offering a wide range of training experiences suited to the needs of rural school corporations.

I. INTRODUCTION

Research conducted by Helge (1979, 1983, and 1984); Lehr & Harris (1988); Slavin, Karweit, & Madden (1989); Treadway (1984), and others has shown that instructional staff of many rural schools are ill-prepared for the responsibilities they are given in providing educational services to students, especially those who are failing in school, who exhibit learning and behavior problems, or who are not working to their potential. Upgrading the skills of teachers and improving the quality of educational programs in rural communities will require that universities change the manner in which they structure and deliver training to personnel already teaching in schools (O'Connor and Rotatori, 1987; Pelton, 1983).

Poor accessibility to training opportunities is often given as a factor contributing to ineffective educational services in many rural schools and distance education can provide a very viable format for reaching these communities (Knapczyk, 1989). Distance education through interactive communication technology offers the capability of linking universities with rural schools and assisting them in devising new models of personnel preparation (Keegan, 1990; McConnell, 1983; Williamson, 1983). The challenge for universities and school systems is to create a two-way communication network that is diversified enough to support the requirements of training.

Another important consideration is designing training experiences that correspond to the needs of personnel. Such training must be suited to the day-to-day responsibilities of personnel and facilitate application of skills and instructional methodologies to teachers' on-the-job performance. Activities must address both classroom and schoolwide practices and affect lasting change in performance.

Collaborative training strategies supported by distance education and technology can create unique training opportunities for personnel in rural communities. This approach can help establish a true partnership between training institutions and school corporations and capitalize on the expertise already available within rural schools. This manuscript describes how Indiana University has used distance education and collaborative training approaches to provide field-based coursework to practicing teachers.

II. OVERVIEW OF PROGRAM

Indiana University's At Risk Program is field-based and offers training to practicing teachers in rural communities who otherwise would be unable to participate in coursework. The program offers a wide array of opportunities geared to the needs of local communities. The focus of training is upon improving educational and support services to at-risk and mildly handicapped students so they can more successfully take part in school and community settings. The thrust of the program is to re-structure classroom and other instructional environments and to facilitate communication, cooperation, and collaboration among school personnel. Particular attention is given to demonstrating effective teaching practices; promoting application of the practices to the trainees' work environment; and restructuring classroom, school, and community settings to offer children a wider array of educational opportunities.

A distance learning format is used to deliver training to the regional sites that are located in rural settings. Teams of personnel from schools and agencies proximate to one another form cohort groups for the program. Personnel from over 20 schools and agencies in 10 different communities in southern Indiana have enrolled in the program.

Staff can participate in the following training modules:

Module 1: Determining the expectations for successful performance in school and community settings

Module 2: Assessing student performance and designing individualized intervention plans

Module 3: Improving academic achievement and cognitive skills

Module 4: Improving participation in instructional activities

Module 5: Improving social skills

Module 6: Improving organizational strategies and study habits

Module 7: Improving self-management and motivation

Each module is self-contained and includes objectives, visual aides, readings, case studies, and guidelines for application and adaption of teaching practices to the trainees' current assignment. Modules are designed to integrate traditional coursework presentations and practicum activities into a unified training experience. For example, each module has assigned on-the-job projects that team members tailor to the characteristics of children and youth in their facilities.

Specific training activities are developed and delivered in partnership with participating schools and agencies. Local personnel help plan and team teach the training sessions, set the focus of field experiences, and take an active part in program evaluation and follow-up. The program also promotes collaboration and collegiality among personnel through school-, agency-, and community-based team planning efforts.

The modules are offered to personnel using a distance learning approach. Computer-based audiographic, teleconferencing, and facsimile technology assist project staff in organizing and offering a wide range of training experiences suited to the needs of personnel.

III. DISTANCE EDUCATION

Distance education refers to approaches characterized by the separation of instructor and students (Keegan, 1983 and 1990). It includes print-based instruction (e.g., correspondence courses) and technology-based instruction (e.g., interactive video and computer technologies). Since distance education is field-based, it reduces or eliminates the need to commute to a central training site and greatly improves the accessibility of training to personnel in rural communities. Furthermore, distance education can accommodate training strategies that are practical in orientation and geared to trainees' job requirements. It can aid in establishing partnerships between training institutions and school corporations and support such activities as identifying the needs of personnel, utilizing local resources in training, and devising coursework and field experiences suited to the demands of the school environment (Keegan, 1990; Knapczyk, 1989 and 1990).

IV. AUDIOGRAPHIC TECHNOLOGY

Audiographics is a computer-based technology that permits simultaneous transmission of voice communication and graphic images across telephone lines. Audiographics is interactive and enables users at different locations to speak with one another, share text and graphic images, and annotate images displayed on monitors. Graphics are scanned and stored onto a computer hard drive. They are then sequenced into a slide presentation and transmitted to the regional training site. The presentations are used as part of large group presentations, small group conferences, and individual reporting and feedback sessions. Several schools and agencies can be networked with one another in a conference call format and each site can have full interactive capabilities.

An example of an audiographic system developed by American Telephone and Telegraph (A.T.& T.) is one that includes the following components:

- Conference Speaker Phones
- Personal computers that have hard disc drives and 640KB of memory
- Overview Scanners that can capture almost any type of image, e. g., photographs, charts, hand written documents
- SCANWARE communication software package that provides the ability to scan and capture images, transmit images to other locations, display and annotate images on the monitors, and sequence and store multiple images in the form of slide presentations.
- Bridge Modems that give the capability of both point-to-point and multi-point communication networking.
- Printers
- Facsimile machines

Other components, such as external microphones, large screen monitors, graphics tablets, and audience response devices, can be incorporated into the system to enhance its capacity for training. The audiographic system operates across two sets of dedicated telephone lines. One line is used for voice transmission and the other links computer terminals. Audiographic systems using other equipment configurations have been described by Chute and Balthazar (1987); Gardner, Rudolph, and Della-Piana (1987); McConnell (1983); Williamson (1983); and Winn, Ellis, Plattor, Sinkey, and Potter (1986).

V. STAFF DEVELOPMENT SESSIONS USING AUDIOGRAPHICS

Personnel commute to an off-campus regional site and participate in training sessions in groups of 10-20 trainees. Instruction is presented in a co-teaching arrangement. One person from the cohort group serves as an on-site field trainer. This person acts as group facilitator for the sessions, coordinates activities, oversees practice exercises, and monitors small group projects. A university-based instructor administers and supervises the training, organizes the content of the sessions, prepares materials, and participates in presentations by means of the audiographic link.

Audiographics assists instructors in planning and organizing the training activities. Before each meeting, graphic materials are prepared for the session. Instructional materials may include notes, outlines, figures, charts, or other visual displays. Materials are transmitted to the regional site through the audiographic network and previewed by both instructors. Plans for incorporating materials into instructional lessons are made and preparations for the session are finalized.

During training sessions an audiographic link between the university and the regional sites is established. The link permits two-way voice and graphic interaction during lecture and discussion activities. Since both instructors can control the computer displayed graphics, responsibility for presenting materials and monitoring discussions can be assumed by the university instructor, the field instructor, or shared by both. For example, the university instructor can explain the principles underlying a teaching strategy and the field instructor may describe how to apply the strategy with specific students in the school programs. Trainees can then discuss adaptations they would need to make to incorporate the strategy in their instructional routines and receive guidance and feedback from one or both instructors.

Additional in-class exercises, small and large group assignments, and similar activities have been developed for class sessions to promote application and synthesis of concepts. The audiographic network between sites allows trainees to send samples of their work to the university instructor for review, feedback, further discussion, and evaluation.

At the end of each class meeting, the university and field instructors use the audiographic link to review the progress and accomplishments of the session. A formative evaluation of training activities is completed and preliminary plans are made for the next group meeting.

VI. FIELD EXPERIENCES USING AUDIOGRAPHICS

Field experiences are integrated into the training to provide opportunities for staff to apply the concepts and principles covered in sessions to the demands of their teaching positions. These experiences are organized in the form of projects that trainees complete within their own classrooms and facilities. Projects are collaborative in nature and trainees work together on them as teams.

The projects are designed to coincide with the concepts addressed in the modules. Steps for completing projects are coordinated with class meetings and after each session trainees complete assigned activities pertaining to the topics presented. Each week they submit progress reports and outputs through the audiographic network to the university instruction for review, feedback, and evaluation.

Audiographics enhances communication between trainees and their supervisor and assists monitoring and evaluation of field activities. By using the audiographic network to present reports of their field work, trainees obtain feedback about their performance with very little delay. For example, the campus-based instructor can regularly establish a voice and graphic link with the teams and review each group's accomplishments.

VII. SOME BENEFITS OF USING DISTANCE EDUCATION AND AUDIOGRAPHICS IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Faculty and personnel participating in Indiana University's At-Risk Program have discovered several important advantages to using distance learning and audiographic technology in staff development activities. One prime benefit is that incorporating audiographics into field-based preparation opens university level training to personnel who otherwise would be unable to access the training. With the aid of audiographics, the university can provide advanced level training to rural communities in a manner that ensures quality control.

The availability of staff development in local communities also makes it possible for many personnel working in a facility and community to attend the same training sessions. This is in contrast to staff development activities provided at a centralized facility where trainees are likely to be from schools and communities having very different characteristics. Providing training to groups of professionals having common experiences and goals enables activities to be focused on specific needs and interests. It also creates many opportunities to incorporate techniques that enhance collaborative relationships and collegial support among staff members. For example, teachers can examine the curriculum goals across several instructional settings and work toward achieving greater continuity and consistency in their expectations for student performance. They can work together in devising and implementing interventions for individual students and strengthen each others efforts.

VIII. SUMMARY

Improving the skills of personnel already teaching in rural communities will require universities to develop new approaches for structuring and delivering training programs. The success of the program at Indiana University largely depends upon the partnership established between the university and school corporations in planning coursework and field experiences. Collaborative teacher training approaches, distance education and instructional technology has given Indiana University and participating schools considerable flexibility in organizing and offering a wide range of training experiences suited to the needs of rural communities.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: James Yanok
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

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COMMUNICATING ABOUT LOSS AND MOURNING:

DEATH EDUCATION FOR PERSONS WITH MENTAL RETARDATION

ABSTRACT

The experimental curriculum that is the focus of this investigation was designed for and field-tested on a sample comprised of verbally-expressive adults with mental retardation. Findings from this pilot study involving the implementation of the Communicating About Loss & Mourning (CALM) Curriculum suggested that mentally retarded persons have a need for and indeed can benefit from a formal program of death education and grief counseling.

A distraught and despairing mother of an adult female with mental retardation attended her daughter's annual program planning conference. Beseechingly, she pleaded: "Is there anyone present who can help my daughter cope with my approaching death?" Those professionals seated around the conference table sheeplishly stared at the woman and then at one another in befuddled silence. Regrettably, the terminally-ill parent's poignant question received no reply.

Such reticence regarding the topic of death and dying undoubtedly is as prevalent among practitioners in the field of mental retardation as within the general population. Death education and grief counseling rarely have been recognized to be essential elements of the individual educational plans or habilitation programs of the mentally retarded. According to Deutsch (1985), a variety of reasons exist for the reluctance of special educators and other human service professionals to forthrightly discuss this sensitive subject with students or clients. Erroneously, it has been argued that mentally retarded persons, irrespective of their age, are incapable of comprehending the finality and irreversibility of death. It also mistakenly has been assumed that the mentally retarded are unable to form the emotional bonds and intimate interpersonal relationships which ultimately could culminate in feelings of personal loss and mourning.

Although such rationalizations may serve to simplify the professional responsibilities of practitioners, they conversely can exacerbate the levels of anxiety, distress, and depression experienced by a bereaving student or client. In reference to their responses to death, as in most other aspects of their lives, persons with mental retardation are more like everyone else than they are different. Even though some low functioning individuals may not be able to clearly conceptualize or express their grief, they too will experience some degree of mourning. Howell (1989) has concluded that service providers should never presume their clients do not know about the sorrow that accompanies the loss of a loved one.

In an experiment involving nonhandicapped, early elementary school students, Jenkins and Cavanaugh (1985) discovered that an understanding of human mortality was correlated with advancing chronological age and the acquisition of verbal skills. According to Speece and Brent (1984), the average age at which children begin to acquire a realistic concept of death is between five and seven. Their mature comprehension of human mortality may only be attainable after they have discerned that: (1) death causes the cessation of all life functioning (nonfunctionality), (2) life can not be restored to the deceased (irreversibility), and (3) all living things ultimately die (universality).

The relationship of death conceptualization and age also was examined by Lipe-Goodson and Goebel (1983) in a rare study involving mentally retarded subjects. Findings from this experiment indicated that life experience acquired through aging enhanced the ability of the mentally retarded to understand the meaning of mortality. Evidently, elder persons with mental retardation acquire a more accurate conceptualization of death than their younger counterparts with comparable cognitive abilities (Seltzer, 1989).

METHODOLOGY

Based upon the results of the aforementioned research, the experimental curriculum that is the focus of this investigation explicitly was designed for and field-tested on a sample comprised of verbally-expressive adults with mental retardation. The Communicating About Loss & Mourning (CALM) Curriculum was presented in eight sessions each lasting for approximately 50 minutes.

The objectives underlying each lesson were accomplished through the implementation of an instructional format incorporating lecture and discussion. Curricular materials consisted of animate and inanimate objects from the surrounding classroom environment as well as pictures and illustrations depicting human aging from infancy through adulthood.

The critical component of each session was a guided group discussion of the individual and shared experiences of students with death. Although the instructor pointedly encouraged students to reveal their personal thoughts and apprehensions, participation was neither cajoled nor coerced. Furthermore, each student was assured that anyone at any time freely could withdraw from the program without explanation or fear of consequences.

Participants in this study randomly were selected from among clients enrolled in a sheltered workshop program. Chronological ages (CA) of the 25 experimental subjects receiving instruction ranged from 22 to 63 and their measured intelligence quotients (IQ) were from 18 to 73. The mean CA and IQ for this experimental group were 35.1 and 49.3, respectively. All experimental subjects possessed sufficient verbal skills to comprehend oral instruction and auditorially express themselves during group discussions.

Additionally, a control group consisting of 25 other verbal clients from the same sheltered workshop program also was randomly chosen. The CA range of control subjects was from 28 to 66 and IQ scores were from from 20 to 66. The group's mean CA was 42.0 and the mean IQ was 48.9. In contrast to their experimental counterparts, control subjects were never introduced to the CALM Curriculum nor had they received any prior instruction in death education or grief counseling.

Following the field testing of the CALM curriculum, members of the experimental as well as the control group individually were administered a brief, eight-question, oral examination. Responses received from all subjects were tallied and the percentages of correct responses were computed for each item of the test. To facilitate further analysis of these descriptive statistical data, responses from the experimental and control subjects were tabulated separately. Thereafter, values were calculated for all test items to ascertain if any significant differences existed between the two groups.

RESULTS

An analysis of the descriptive data derived from the administration of the eight-question examination to all 50 subjects revealed that the experimental group's performance was numerically superior to that of the control group for every single test item (see Table 1). Moreover, the total percentage of correct exam responses by experimental subjects (81.2%) was statistically greater than that of control group members (55.6%) at the .05 level of significance.

In reference to individual test questions, a pattern of comparatively immature and naive responses is evident among members of the control group. Although almost all subjects realized that inanimate objects are incapable of dying, significantly fewer control subjects correctly reasoned that human beings conceivably could perish during infancy. Furthermore, not one of the control subjects apparently could foresee an instance when it would be socially permissible to feel indifferent or undisturbed by the death of another person.

Regarding the question of the examiner's own mortality, sizeable and statistically similar proportions of both groups responded incorrectly. Even after their exposure to the CALM curriculum, almost half of the experimental subjects still could not tell another person directly to his face that he eventually would die.

As compared to their control counterparts, experimental subjects nonetheless exhibited a clearer understanding of the limitations of their own therapeutic powers. A significantly greater proportion of the experimental group correctly concluded that gestures of kindness alone could not revive an aging, ailing grandparent. Significantly more experimental than control subjects likewise realized that more than wishing would be required to resurrect a person from the dead. However, large and statistically comparable majorities of both groups properly inferred that merely desiring someone's demise could not induce that person's death.

Concerning the matter of societal conventions for funerals, significantly fewer control than experimental subjects evidently understood that rules of etiquette exist governing the behavior of mourners. Barely a majority of the control group accurately assumed that it would be socially inappropriate for a person to enter a funeral home merely to determine the identity of the deceased.

Insert Table 1

DISCUSSION

As evidenced by the comparative examination responses of control and experimental subjects, adults with mental retardation have a need for and indeed can benefit from death education and grief counseling.

Simlansky (1987) metaphorically has maintained that the goal of such an instructional program is to cognitively and emotionally immunize students to the concept of death. Applying this medical analogy to the CALM Curriculum, successive lessons may be conceptualized as controlled, incremental doses of distress which are intended to reduce the student's affliction and hasten his recuperation from more severe cases of personal misfortune in the future.

If grieving mentally retarded persons are to be aided in their recovery, practitioners therefore may be called upon to develop an appropriate death education program as an antidote for chronic sorrow. Based upon the finding from this study the following recommendations accordingly are offered to prospective curriculum developers:

1. A community-based instructional approach should be implemented which emphasizes experiential learning within the natural environment. Field trips to area funeral homes, cemeteries and churches should be augmented by guest presentations from morticians, physicians, and the clergy.

2. Community standards of conduct at funeral homes and cemeteries should also be taught. Media presentations of actual or enacted burial rites could serve to illustrate socially acceptable behavior.

3. The knowledge that death is a universal and irreversible outcome of the natural aging process should be conveyed to students during each lesson. At the same time, they should be assisted in understanding that fatal injuries and incurable illnesses suddenly and unexpectedly can shorten the life span of any living being.

4. The social permissibility of public displays of bereavement for a loved one should be understood by students. Conversely, students should be assured that indifference or relief also may be reasonable human reactions to the death of a stranger or long-suffering loved one.

5. Pertinent new vocabulary words should be presented during each lesson. Particular emphasis should be placed on defining and discussing euphemisms for death like passing on, kicking the bucket, and meeting one's maker.

6. Rather than delivering instruction on successive days over a brief period of time, a program of study pertaining to death education may be more meaningful if taught on a weekly basis spanning several months. Every new lesson should be preceded by a review and guided discussion of subject matter from prior classes. Throughout these weekly sessions, students should be encouraged to speak freely about their own mortality as well as that of others.

CONCLUSION

Like all of us, at some point in their lives persons with mental retardation inevitably will encounter the universal human experiences of loss and mourning. Special educators and adult service providers therefore would be remiss in their professional responsibilities if they were to disregard their students' and clients' need for death education and grief counseling. Moreover, as Kubler-Ross (1969) sagely has maintained, those practitioners who are willing to respond to this need may emerge from the experience with fewer anxieties about the approaching demise of their own loved ones - and themselves.

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TABLE 1

Examination of Knowledge and Attitudes about Death

Question	Percentage of Control Group Answering Correctly (n = 25)	Percentage of Experimental Group Answering Correctly (n = 25)
1. Can a chair die?	92	100
2. Can a tiny baby die?	56	84*
3. Is it ever alright not to feel sad when someone dies?	0	80***
4. Will I (the examiner) ever die?	40	52
5. If your old grandmother became very ill, could you keep her alive by being kinder to her?	36	84***
6. If you wished hard enough could you make a dead person come back to life?	48	100***
7. If you wished someone were dead, and that person died the next day, would it be your fault?	76	92
8. If you were walking past a funeral home filled with people, should you go inside to find out who died?	52	88**

*p .05. **p .01. ***p .001.

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Jim Wika
Co-Presenter: Eric Rudrud
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

School Transition to Employment Partnership (STEP): Employability Curriculum

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Abstract

The STEP curriculum is a competency based evaluation and training program for special needs students, designed to ensure successful transition from school to employment. The STEP curriculum was developed through the South Dakota Statewide Task Force on School/Business Partnerships. The task force included private sector businesses; special educators; vocational educators; school administrators; representatives of the departments of Education and Cultural Affairs, Labor and Vocational Rehabilitation; advocates; and parents of adolescents with handicapping conditions. The STEP curriculum consists of 27 individual components across three major domains: Employability I - Survival skills/Problem solving; Employability II - Career Development/Job Seeking Skills; and Employability III - Job Keeping/Work Maturity. The STEP curriculum was implemented in 12 member school districts affiliated with the Black Hills Special Services Cooperative, serving western South Dakota. Results of the initial field test suggest that students who master on the job competencies have a higher probability of maintaining employment; and, specific competencies were found to be correlated with employment outcomes. Approximately 60% of the students were able to obtain and maintain employment upon completion of the STEP progam.

School Transition to Employment Partnership (STEP): Employability Curriculum

One of society's major expectations of schools is that the educational system will prepare students for entry into the world of work and self sufficiency (West, 1988). However as Rhodes (1986) noted, many former students with severe disabilities were at home without services following graduation. Similarly, Ryan (1988) summarized the findings of Rusch and Phelps (1987) followup study which found:

- 10-12% of the total school population is disabled.
- 67% of all disabled Americans between the ages of 16 and 64 do not work.
- Of those that do work, they are 75% more likely to be working no more than part time.
- Of those that do not work, 67% of them report they would work if the opportunity existed.

As reported by Wright, Emener, and Ashley (1988), since 1970, more than 2.5 million youth with disabilities have left the nation's public school system with only 23% either fully employed or enrolled in college; 40% were underemployed and earning wages at or near the poverty level; and 26% were unemployed and on welfare.

Recent initiatives and mandates by the federal, state, and local educational agencies, have called for the development of effective programs and services to facilitate the transition from school to work (Will, 1984). Transition is not a single program, separate and apart from other programs such as special education, vocational education, guidance, and/or career education; rather, each compnent is integrated within the transition process (West,1988). Thus, effective transition requires the development of a partnership among all interested parties (state and local educational programs, state and local adult service providers, consumers and their parents, and local businesses) to identify roles and responsbilites to ensure the student's success in adult life. Boyer-Stephens and Kearns (1988) state that transition encompasses more than employment in a specific job (Boyer-Stephens & Kearns, 1988). Students need to acquire related functional skills to keep the job, adjust to independent living in the community, and utilize free time constructively. This can best be accomplished through the development and implementation of a functional curriculum.

A functional curriculum is designed to prepare students for vocational opportunities that are avalible in their communities (Lagomarcino & Rusch, 1987). A functional curriculum is charaterized by being:

- community referenced, (i.e., focuses upon the basic demands required for adult life in one's own community);
- integrated, (i.e., allows students with disabilities to work alongside non disabled co-workers);
- longitudinal, (i.e., acquiring a list of the vocational, social, and work related skills that potential employers believe are critical for job entry so that teachers may develop a coordinated and longitudinal curriculum) ; and
- community based, (i.e., secondary instructional content and training should occur in community-relevant settings).

As summarized by Boyer-Stephens and Kearns (1988), teachers must address the needs of each student by going beyond the classroom.

Examples of functional vocational curriculums have been reviewed by Boyer-Stephens and Kearns (1988), Feichtner (1988), and Schmitt, Growick, and Klien (1988). However, as West (1988) indicated transition models need to be tested and modified. The purpose of this article is to describe the development and initial validation of the School Transition to Employment Partnership (STEP): Employability Curriculum.

The STEP curriculum is a competency based evaluation and training program, for special needs students, designed to facilitate the transition from school to employment. The STEP curriculum was developed through the South Dakota Statewide Task Force on School/Business Partnerships. The task force included private sector businesses; special educators; vocational educators; school administrators; representatives of the South Dakota Departments of Education and Cultural Affairs, Labor, and Vocational Rehabilitation; advocates; and parents of adolescents with handicapping conditions. The STEP curriculum consists of 27 individual competencies across three major domains: Employability I - Survival skills/Problem solving; Employability II - Career Development/Job Seeking Skills; and Employability III - Job Keeping/Work Maturity. Each stated competency is comprised of specific units of mastery. The curriculum modules for Employability I and Employability II were designed to be taught in classroom settings, i.e., resource rooms. Employability III competencies were taught on the job within a community based supported employment setting. Specific competencies within each module of the STEP curriculum include:

Employability I
1. Knowledge of work related problems.
2. Problem solving.
3. Knowledge of available services.
4. Developing a budget
5. Money management
6. Knowledge of transportation alternatives

Employability II
1. Career decision making
2. Developing a career plan
3. Awareness of entry level jobs
4. Labor market information
5. Writing a letter of application
6. Completing applications
7. Employer phone contacts
8. Completing a resume & personal fact sheet
9. Job interviews
10. Post interview follow-up
11. Completing W-4 Form
12. Completing an insurance form

Employability III
1. Punctuality
2. Attendance
3. Attitude/Behavior
4. Appearance
5. Interpersonal Relations
6. Task Completion

Each competency is further broken down into specific learning activities and checklists that the instructor utilizes for assessment and instruction in the classroom and community based supported employment sites.

Method

Subjects

A total of 75 students were enrolled in the STEP curriculum during the 1989/90 school year. All students received special education services from 12 local school districts, which are members of the Black Hills Special Services Cooperative, in western South Dakota. A description of the 75 students is provided in table 1.

Table 1. Student Demographics

Average Student Age	17.8 years	Sex: Females (number)	25
range	16 - 21	Males	50
Ethnic Origin: Afro American	2	Hispanic	1
Caucasian	55	Native American	17
Number of Students by Grade Level			
12th Grade	33		
11th Grade	42		
Disability (number)			
Economic Disadvantage	15		
Learning Disability	47		
Mental Retardation			
Mild	11		
Moderate	2		
Academic Abilities (Grade Level Equvilents)			
Average Reading Level	5.9		
(range)	(.5 - 12.9)		
Average Math Level	5.9		
(range)	(.5 - 11.5)		
Intellectual Quotient (N = 61)			
Average	78.4		
(range)	(50 - 108)		

Employment Outcomes

All students received instruction through the STEP curriculum during the school year. At the end of the school year, students were separated into one of four groups depending upon employment outcomes. Group 1 consisted on students who completed high school (graduated or GED) and were competitively employed, (N = 26). Group 2 consisted of (11th grade)students who were still enrolled in the STEP curriculum, (N = 31). Group 3 was comprised of students who dropped out of high school and did not complete the STEP curriculum, (N=3). Group 4 consisted of students who completed high school but had not maintained competitive employment, (N= 15).

Results

Demographic information regarding each the groups of students is presented in Table 2. Analyses of variance revealed significant differences among groups for grade, age, IQ, and reading ability ($p \leq .02$). Scheffee pair wise comparisons were conducted which found the IQ scores for Group 1 to be significantly different ($p \leq .05$) than Group 2. No other significant pairwise comparisions were found.

Table 2. Subject Demographics by Vocational Outcome

	N	Mean Age	Sex M	Sex F	Mean Grade	Mean IQ	Reading Ability	Math Ability
Group 1	26	18.5	17	8	12	82.3	6.3	6.2
Group 2	31	17.3	25	6	11	73.7	4.7	4.9
Group 3	3	17.3	1	2	11.3	87.0	8.3	9.6
Group 4	15	17.7	6	9	12	80.9	7.2	6.82

Types of Job Placements

Students were placed in jobs with over 50 different employers within the Black Hills area. The diversity of employers and types of jobs is reflected by the job categories in which students were placed. (see Table 3)

Table 3. Titles of Job Placements

Job Title	Number of Students
Building Maintenance	4
Car Detailing	2
Cashier	2
Child Care Aide	2
Clerical/Office/File Clerk	7
Construction/Laborer	4
Custodial/Janitorial/Housekeeping	16
Dietary Aide	1
Dishwasher/Kitchen Help	7
Food Service	9
Jewelry Maker	3
Lathe Grader	1
Laundry Worker	1
Librarian Assistant	2
Meat Cutter	1
Mechanic's Helper	4
Nurse's Aide	1
Pottery Detailer	1
Receptionist	1
Service Station Attendant	2
Sign Painter	1
Stock Clerk	2
Welder	1

Wage and Hour Data

The mean hourly wage, mean number of hours worked per week, and the number of months employed for each of the four groups is presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Hour and Wage Data

	Mean Hourly Wage	Mean Hours per Week	Months Employed
Group 1	3.56	24.0	7.5
range	(3.35 - 4.50)	(10 - 40)	(1-12)
Group 2	3.36	12.5	4.9
range	(3.35 - 3.50)	(5 - 20)	(1-12)
Group 3	3.35	11.6	2.6
range	(3.35)	(10 - 15)	(2-3)
Group 4	3.35	15.5	5.0
range	(3.35)	(10 - 40)	(2-8)
TOTAL	3.42	17.1	5.7

Analyses of variance were computed which found significant differences ($p \leq .002$) between the four groups in the hourly wage earned, number of hours worked per week, and the number of months employed. Scheffee pair wise comparisons were conducted which found Group 1 to be significantly different ($p \leq .05$) than Groups 2 and 4, among hourly wages, hours worked per week, and number of months employed.

STEP Competencies

Further analyses were conducted regarding the relationship of STEP competencies to employment outcomes. Table 5 presents the mean number of STEP competencies obtained for Groups 1, 3, and 4. Students in Group 2 were still enrolled in the STEP program, however had not completed the STEP curriculum nor high school.

Table 5 Mean number of STEP competencies completed.

	Employability 1	Employability 2	Employability 3
Group 1	4.8	9.8	5.6
Group 3	4.0	8.0	2.5
Group 4	4.8	8.4	3.9
Total Possible	6	12	6

Analyses of variance indicated that there were no significant differences between groups in the number of competencies completed in Employability 1 and Employability 2. However, a significant difference ($p \leq .0000$) in total competencies completed in Employability 3 among groups was found. The Scheffee analysis revealed that Group 1 was signficantly different ($p \leq .05$) from groups 2 and 3.

A stepwise multiple regression was computed to determine which specific competencies within Employability I, II, or III were related to successful employment outcomes. The analysis was conducted using Group 1 and Group 4, indiviudals who had completed high school. Group 3 was omitted from the analysis because they had not completed the STEP program. A comparison of the total number of competencies achieved within Employability 1, Employability 2, and Employability 3, revealed that Employability 3 total was significantly correlated with employment (r square of .48, $p \leq .000$). Specific competencies where then utilized in the regression, which resulted in the following equation:

$$\text{Employment} = .26 + .58(\text{E3 C6}) + 1.23(\text{E2 C2}) + .39(\text{E3 C1}) - .11(\text{EMP 1})$$

$$(\text{r square} = .66,\ p \leq .000,\ \text{standard error} = .29)$$

E3 C6 = Employability III, competency 6: task completion (students are rated on 11 traits)
E2 C2 = Employability II, competency 2: developing a career plan
E3 C1 = Employability III, competency 1: punctuality
EMP1 = total number of competencies completed Employability 1

Discussion

The STEP Employability Curriculum was developed through a partnership of state and local education agencies, representatives of state and local vocational rehabilitation personnel, and private industry. The challenge presented to the task force was to develop a list of competencies that employers identified as necessessary to obtain employment in entry level jobs. The STEP curriculum appears to be an effective program for transition from school to the world of work. Approximately 60% of the students were able to obtain and maintain employment upon completion of high school.

The results of the initial field test revealed that students who were able to gain and maintained employment upon completion of high school (Group 1) worked on the job longer, worked more hours per week, and earned a higher mean hourly wage than students who did not maintain employment (Group 4). Demographic variables of grade, age, IQ, Reading Abilitiy, and Math Ability were not signficantly different between Group 1 and Group 4 students, nor were these demographic variables found to be related to employment outcomes. It is interesting to note that the mean IQ for 11th grade students enrolled in the program (Group 2) was lower than Groups 1 and 4, and also obtained lower reading and mathematic ability scores. This may suggest that the schools are including students with more severe disabilities in the STEP curriculum.

Specific analysis of the STEP competencies indicated that a student's on the job performance (Employability III) was significantly correlated with maintaining employment. Thus the competencies identified appear to be related to successful transtion. Further, specific traits that were found to be correlated with employment included task completion, punctuality, and developing a career plan. The supported employment research has also shown task completion and punctuality to be related to maintaining employment (Hill, Wehman, Hill, & Goodall, 1986). Developing a career plan was also correlated with maintaining employment. This underlies the importance of effective vocational education and career planning programs for students with disabilities.

The results obtained reflect the performance of 75 students from 12 school districts in western South Dakota. Thus, generalizations to other students and settings must be tentative. Follow up studies regarding job stability and terminations of these students are being planned.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Mary Susan E. Fishbaugh
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 1:30pm - 2:30pm

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DUBOIS-SPENCER-PERRY VOCATIONAL TRAINING GUIDE

The Dubois-Spencer-Perry Vocational Training Guide is a manual to be used by special eduction teachers as they provide vocational education for their students. The Guide resulted from a very practical need for consistency across individual school corporations, exceptionality areas and students' severity levels. This summary will discuss background, philosophy and contents of the Guide. With this information, special education teachers should be able to determine the Guide's applicability to their personal teaching situations and individual student needs.

Background

The Dubois-Spencer-Perry Exceptional Childrens' Co-op is located in Southern Indiana. The Co-op serves nine school corporations in a three-county area. Predominantly rural, the Co-op's largest "urban" area is Jasper, Indiana, a community of just under 10,000 according to 1990 census figures.

Vocational education for special eduction students has been inconsistently provided. This inconsistency has been the result of availability or lack of funding rather than interest or lack of on the part of co-op personnel. Recent and sustained effort to provide special vocational education has developed with the Co-op's involvement in Indiana University's L.R.E. (Least Restrictive Environment) Project. The L.R.E. Project focussed on supported employment and transition from school to work for severely involved individuals.

Not surprisingly, effects of this project for severely disabled students began to spread informally to other disabled populations in the Co-op. Students who were mildly disabled and emotionally handicapped began reaping program benefits by placement on job sites with job coaches. As this ripple effect grew, Co-op personnel began to discuss the need for consistency in vocational programming across programmatic areas. This need resulted in compilation of the D.S.P. Vocational Training Guide.

Philosophy

Philosophically and in all policy statements, the Dubois-Spencer-Perry Exceptional Childrens' Co-op subscribes to a belief in providing an appropriate education in the least restrictive environment appropriate for an individual student's needs. Therefore, special education students should be mainstreamed with their nondisabled peers to the maximum extent possible. In practice, this philosophy translates into scheduling special education students into regular vocational education classes wherever such classes are available, provided the students can function constructively in the class. Course descriptions are provided and materials are suggested for teachers who must provide vocational education in their special education classes.

Research

The D.S.P. Vocational Education Guide is not research based due to its origins in a very practically oriented and articulated need. Faculty in the Ohio Employability Skills project at Ohio State University permitted inclusion of their work in the following sections of the Guide: Career Education, Vocational Education, and Assessment .

Components

The contents of the Guide include the following:

Background
Philosophy
Career Education
Vocational Education
Assessment
Vocational Course Opportunities
Suggested Materials
Forms
Transitional Policy and Procedures
Staff Roles and Responsibilities
Child Labor Provisions

Each section is letter-coded and individually numbered for eas eof use. For instance, Assessment pages are designated by A1 through A19. The information is intended to provide teachers with a how-to approach for special vocational education implementation.

Application

The Dubois-Spencer-Perry Vocational Training Guide can be used by novice or veteran special education teachers as they strive to provide the most appropriate education possible for their students. The Assessment , Materials , Forms , Staff Responsibilities , and Child Labor sections are especially practically oriented.

The Guide could also be used by administrators as they develop a vocational program in their co-op/district. It applies equally to urban and rural areas, across categories of exceptionality, and across severity levels.

Copies of the Guide may be purchased for the cost of duplication (approximately $15.00) from:

The Dubois-Spencer-Perry
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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Walter R. Higbee
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

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FORTY YEARS IN RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION-1951 TO 1991
OR
YES, VIRGINIA, THERE WERE PROGRAMS FOR THE HANDICAPPED BEFORE PUBLIC LAW 94-142

The writer comes from the era that is sometimes referred to as the "dawn of American special education"--that era immediately following the end of World War II. That was the time when many states, including many rural states, established their sections or departments of special education. This was true in Iowa.

We Iowa special education pioneers of that time all had one thing in common. We were deeply influenced by that grand old man of special education from the Corn State, the late Professor James B. Stroud of the University of Iowa. J.B. Stroud is the one who introduced me to the field of education of the handicapped by calling me aside and saying, "You know, young man, I think some of you young folks might want to look at special education as a career. I think that will be a big thing in the `50s and `60s."

In preparation for this talk, I dug into the far back reaches of my bookcase and came up with a volume from the National Society for the Study of Education, its Forty-ninth Yearbook, published in 1950, and titled The Education of Exceptional Children. This book, as I recall, was about the only textbook in handicapped education that was available. Here is a listing of the chapters:

Basic Facts and Principles Underlying Special Education
Administering Special Services for Exceptional Children
Identifying and Diagnosing Exceptional Children
Growth Problems of Exceptional Children
Guidance for the Exceptional Child
The Education of Teachers of Special Classes
Parents Problems with Exceptional Children
Teaching the Visually Handicapped
Teaching the Acoustically Handicapped
Teaching Children with Speech Handicaps
Teaching the Orthopedically Handicapped and the Cardiopathic
Special Education for the Epileptic, the Tubercular, and Children with Glandular Disorders
Special Education for the Mentally Handicapped
Special Education for the Gifted Child
Special Schools and Classes for the Socially Maladjusted

The Prevention of Handicaps in Children
Needed Projects and Research in Special Education

The chapter headings from 1950 are not all that different from those in Hallahan and Kaufman's 1991 text, Exceptional Children:

Exceptionality and Special Education
Issues and Trends: Normalization, Integration, and Cultural Diversity
Mental Retardation
Learning Disabilities
Emotional and Behavioral Disorders
Communication Disorders
Hearing Impairment
Visual Impairment
Physical Disabilities
Giftedness
Parents and Families

At the beginning of the 1950's there were some 365,000 handicapped children enrolled in special programs in the United States. Of course, the special class was the favored delivery service at that time. The rationale for special class placement was spelled out in the Forty-ninth Yearbook as follows:

> "A child cannot be more cruelly segregated than to be placed in a room where his failures separate him from other children who are experiencing success. The nonreader, the deaf, or the mentally retarded may be segregated by placement in a regular classroom where his needs are not understood or met."

Many have forgotten that in the beginning of special education, our concerns were mainly with physically handicapped children. My own student teaching in special education, for example, was done at University Hospitals in Iowa City and my students were mostly polio victims. We sometimes forget that the dreaded polio was the scourge of the nation in the late 40's and early 50's. Something that struck me, also, as I reviewed the Forty-ninth Yearbook was the concern over children with various kinds of physical limitations. I'm sure this was a carry-over from the after-effects of the Great American Depression when many children received minimal education as well as inadequate general health care. We see lots of concern about children suffering from malnutrition, weak hearts, poor posture, low energy, stunted growth, and nervous conditions. One writer even advocated the need for a handicapping category called the "delicate".

Before I leave the Forth-ninth Yearbook, let me mention a couple of other findings. Here is a list of suggested qualifications necessary for special teachers:

Capacity for self-direction
Patience and perseverance
Experimentally minded
Physically fit
Personally adjusted

These characteristics were necessary, we were reminded, because special teachers were often on their own and worked in some isolation. Sound familiar?

Special education terminology was changing then. We were encouraged to drop the offensive "moron, imbecile, idiot" terms in favor of the more refined "educable, trainable, custodial" trilogy. I became so over-trained in this usage that it is still difficult for me to get with the current "mild, moderate, severe" emphasis.

I was particularly impressed by a section in the Yearbook titled "Needed Research and Development". Two things stood out:

1. Investigate the effects of opportunity for the handicapped at pre-school age.
2 Investigate the effects of educating for for social and vocational adjustment at post-school age.

Remember, this yearbook was written in 1950.

J.B. Stroud and the Forty-ninth Yearbook, then, launched me into a forty year career in special education that is still going strong. I have been a special teacher, a special education supervisor, a school psychologist, a college professor, and a foster parent of a profoundly handicapped child.

I have been a college professor in a particularly rural state (South Dakota) for twenty-five years. I have established some kind of a record at Black Hills State University by teaching an extension class somewhere in the area every semester I have been there. This has meant teaching more than fifty classes in places ranging from the Fort Yates Indian Reservation to the north to Hot Springs, South Dakota to the south and from Cody, Wyoming to the west to Platt, South Dakota to the east.

Some of the fondest memories of my career have been associated with my practice of public school psychology. I have seen this profession grow and change since I entered its ranks in 1955. (I'm pleased to say that School Psychologist Certificate #3 in Iowa will always be mine even now that those certificates number in the hundreds.) Had I been astute, I would have kept a log of experiences as I practiced this profession over the past 30 years. A book of these experiences would be a sure best seller. Some of them, notably The Iowa Regional School Psychologist Program, Do Bananas Telephone, The Androgynous

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Child, and Lost Balls, Paperback Books, and Blueberry Muffins have been published and are available by contacting the author.

I would like to conclude this review of my involvement in the history of rural special education on a couple of light notes. The first has to do with school hot lunch. Over forty years of eating hot lunches I have conducted some empirical research and have come to this conclusion--there is an inverse relationship between the size of the school and the quality of the hot lunch. In other words, the smaller the school, the better the lunch. Put another way, the smaller the school, the larger the piece of pizza served to visiting school psychologists. (Some readers might want to contact the author for a copy of Confessions of a School Hot Lunch Fan.)

Finally, there is this. This is my fifth ACRES conference. I have enjoyed some of the distinctive Doris Helge touches that characterize these get-togethers. The first conference I attended was in Murray, Kentucky in 1983 and I am proud to say that I walked away with the award for the best rest room graffiti that year. I have also enjoyed collecting some of the You Know Its Rural If....bits that this conference is famous for. Here are a few of my favorites:

You know you live in a rural area if.....

> You don't have to use your turn signal because everyone knows where you're going,
>
> You can't walk for exercise because every car that passes offers you a ride,
>
> You write a check on the wrong bank and it cashes it for you anyway,
>
> Third Street is on the edge of town,
>
> The pick-ups parked on Main Street outnumber the cars three to one,
>
> and,
>
> Someone asks how you are, and listens while you tell them.

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Charles Feild
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

Charles R. Feild, M.D.
Russell S. Kirby, Ph.D.
Holly H. Rahman, B.S.
Thomas J. Nosal, M.S.W.
Rebecca Peacock, B.A.

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Rural Special Education and Medicaid: Meeting A Challenge for the 1990s

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Medicaid (MA) reimbursement is now possible for medically related special education (SE) services. The populations served by MA and SE are at risk from low family income and handicapping conditions that significantly affect the ability to learn and perform in school. This article reviews the development of the relationship between these two important programs for children. We describe a MA assistance project for schools devised by a University Department of Pediatrics and characteristics and reimbursement of school districts participating in MA.

INTRODUCTION The histories of MA and special education merit review. MA began in 1965 as Title XIX of the Social Security Act to provide medical care to the poor. In 1974 60% of the nation's handicapped children were not receiving appropriate educational services.(1) In 1975 the Education for the Handicapped Act-Public Law 94-142 (EHA) mandated public school special education programs that included related services including "transportation and such developmental, corrective, and other supportive services as are required to assist a handicapped child to benefit from special education" to children traditionally unserved or underserved.

In 1982 the Department of Health and Human Services' Health Care Finance Administration(HCFA) determined any service included in a SE pupil's Individual Education Plan under the EHA was the financial responsibility of the school district. In 1986 EHA was amended to extend service mandates to the third birthday by passage of PL 99-457. Section 202 of Public Law 99-457 stated "no other agencies responsibilities are limited or reduced by the new law, new funds can not be used to supplant existing state and federal funds and that states cannot reduce or alter existing eligibility and funding for medical and other health services under MA and MCH [Federal Maternal and Child Health-Title V] funding". Also in 1986 the General Accounting Office recommended changing the law to allow MA to pay for related services that typically would have been paid if EHA was not in effect. (2)

In 1987 a court ruling stated "the relevant question in determining whether services are MA reimbursable is whether the services are 'medical assistance' "and that HCFA "may not determine whether a service is included in the MA program by sole reference to the state's special education law. The Secretary of HHS must make an inquiry into the nature of the services not just into what they are called or who provides them". (3)

In 1988 the Medicare Catastrophic Coverage Act Public Law PL 100-360 stated, "Nothing in this law shall be construed as prohibiting or restricting or authorizing the secretary to prohibit or restrict payment under subsection (a) for medical assistance for covered services furnished to a handicapped child because such services are included in the child's individual education program established pursuant to part B of the Education Handicapped Act or furnished to a handicapped infant or toddler because such services are included in the child's individualized family service plan adopted pursuant to part H of such Act". While much of the Medicare Catastrophic Coverage Act was repealed, the above language was retained, allowing related services to be covered by MA. Schools thus are eligible to receive MA federal matching funds for those services.

Schools have been slow to participate in the MA program for SE. As of April 1990 (school year 1989-90) MA funding of SE was occurring in only twelve states (four states on a pilot basis only). For school year 1990-91 22 states project using MA funds for SE (eight on a pilot basis only). (4) Only two states, Iowa and Connecticut, require MA funding of related services for SE pupils. (5,6)

METHODS August 1, 1989, the Arkansas Department of Human Services allowed school districts and the state's 16 regional multidistrict educational cooperatives (serving ages 3-5 in early intervention programs) to enroll as MA providers for occupational, physical and speech therapies. (7) Arkansas educators remained reluctant to become involved in accessing MA for SE services. Reasons given included, "too complicated", "takes too long to get our money", "parents won't cooperate with providing MA information", and "what is MA?".

Based on extensive experience with MA the Section of Community Pediatrics and Public Policy of the Department of Pediatrics, University of Arkansas for Medical Sciences College of Medicine, developed a MA program for public schools. The Medical College Physicians Group (the faculty practice billing system) files claims on behalf of school districts using MA provider numbers assigned to each school district. This allows local districts access to data processing and administrative expertise with the state and federal MA program. Electronic data transfer between the billing system and the MA claims processor allows rapid reimbursement of schools. Tracking of the status of each claim, particularly those initially denied, maximizes ultimate reimbursement. A fee has been charged to cover costs based on a percentage of the amount billed. A cost based reimbursement will be developed. School districts are reimbursed directly by MA at the MA matching rate for Arkansas of 3:1.

Arkansas has many small school districts - 325 districts in a state of 2.1 million population, mostly rural. In addition the state is divided into 16 regional educational cooperatives. All PL 99-457 services for 3-5 year olds are delivered through these cooperatives. Many districts also use cooperative based personnel to deliver SE related services to school aged pupils. The Department of Pediatrics initially approached schools through the Cooperative directors and subsequently through individual school districts.

Information from school participation was obtained from the Arkansas Department of Education. Reimbursement data was provided by the UAMS faculty practice Information Services and the Departments of Education and Human Services. Medicaid information is from the American Academy of Pediatrics Department of Research state Medicaid reports.

RESULTS Table 1 provides descriptive information from the first year of the project.

TABLE I 1989-90 SCHOOL YEAR

# of districts statewide	325
# of districts* in project	23
# student billing	297
MA charges/	$91,117
reimbursement	$76,161
% claims paid**	83%
mean claim/year	$256

*17 districts and 6 cooperatives
**rejected for "third party liability", i.e. family has some private insurance.

It is not possible from available data to determine total MA costs for pupils with related services paid by MA. The $256 average claim per year is not large in comparison to a statewide average reimbursement of $1133 per year per MA eligible schoolage child. 83% of claims were paid by MA. Most of the 17% rejected were on the basis of some private health insurance in the family or ineligibility. This issue of rejection for third party liability is addressed in the discussion.

Table 2 compares the 17 school districts to the 51 districts billing independently and the 254 districts not participating in MA at all. The mean and median enrollments in districts in the project were larger than in the other two groups although the difference was not statistically different. For districts in the project MA participation was lower and SE enrollment higher than in project districts:

Table 2 Comparison of Participating School Districts 1989-90*

	State total N=325	Project N=17	Other** N=51	No MA participation N=254
Total Enrollment				
	434,200	37,657	6,996	242,391
Mean	1,336	2,215	1,901	954
Median	650	1,561	771	614
MA enrolled	30,942	2,086	7,852	17,290
%MA	7.1%	5.5%	8.1%	7.1%
SE enrollment				
	43,128	3,892	9,454	24,811
%SE	9.9%	10.3%	9.7%	10.2%

* Does not include cooperatives
**Excludes the three large urban school districts
Mean enrollment, MA eligible, and SE enrollment do not differ significantly, P>.05.

DISCUSSION MA and SE are two entitlement programs administered by the individual states, utilizing both state and federal funds. There are variations in both programs in eligibility and benefits from state to state. Educators have reason to feel uneasy about MA, a new program involving Federal funds as payment source. The EHA mandated states to provide an array of new services, authorizing a Federal share of 40% of states' SE costs. Appropriations have fallen far short of this, never higher than 12% and currently provide only 9% of states' costs. Meanwhile there have been no reductions in the level of services districts are required to provide. (1)

In a series of articles Palfrey and her colleagues have identified areas of concern in provision of related services in five urban communities. These districts range in size from 19,000-116,000 pupils and are much larger than districts involved in the Medicaid assistance project. They have found pervasive problems in funding SE related services. MA will provide new resources for educators.(8,9,10,11) Morse has recently reviewed the relationship between Title V of the Social Security Act (Maternal and Child Health Block Grant) and preschool and school age special education law. She found: **1.** local and state information and resource sharing can unify activities between health and education and **2.** a need for improved third party funding. (12)

Although both Medicaid and special education programs are less than perfect, improved coordination between these programs for children with special needs addresses identified problems in funding related services .

Most states currently not accessing MA for SE are studying the feasibility of such funding. Six states currently bill family's private insurance for SE medically related services. This may jeopardize a child's and/or family's insurability over time by exhausting lifetime policy limits or establishing the presence of a "pre-existing condition". A recent appeals court decision ruled private insurers need not pay for related services if the policy excludes services "which the subscriber is entitled to receive from a governmental agency or unit without cost". (13) We feel that billing private insurance violates the spirit of free public education and do not provide for billing private insurance.

The Early Periodic Screening Diagnosis and Treatment (EPSDT) component of MA was added in 1967 to provide comprehensive well child care. In addition MA coverage of services to children participating in EPSDT was allowed even if not provided to all others in the MA program. The Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act of 1989 requires coverage of any needs found through EPSDT regardless of whether indicated services are included in the State's MA plan. In many states this provision allows or extends services previously not covered or limited to units of service allowed per year. In addition OBRA 1989 added children up to age 6 in families up to 133% of poverty to MA eligibility. OBRA 1990, as of April 1991 mandated coverage to 100% of the poverty level for children age six to nineteen. The ages covered by those income guidelines will increase by one year of age annually. All children up to age 19 will be covered in 2001. These changes have led to both increased numbers of young children eligible for Medicaid and the scope of services they receive.

In 1987 Palfrey and her group reported only 28.7% of children with educationally handicapping conditions were identified by age five. (9) The improved coverage of younger children and EPSDT expanded mandates may improve identification of potential educational problems in kindergarten and lower grades. These changes can bring about improved detection of problems by medical personnel and provision of MA funds to districts.

CONCLUSIONS The American Academy of Pediatrics has urged pediatricians to take a broad role in SE programs. (14) We found a role for existing resources in the Department of Pediatrics to improve funding of SE. Complex annual federal and state MA changes suggest that school districts can benefit from outside expertise. We support use of MA as it encourages identification and treatment at younger ages through broadened income eligibility. We expect that related services funded by MA will expand to include other related services. These should include psychometric testing, counseling services, skilled nursing care, and other services. Medical assessment and care are already eligible for MA reimbursement under existing mechanisms. As stated in the Academy's policy statement, the role for pediatricians in prescribing and monitoring SE services should be greater. Similar expansion will occur in all states, depending on the services covered prior to OBRA 1989. Schools now have a specific reason to assist the health and social services departments to identify children eligible but not enrolled in MA and/or EPSDT.

In summary, MA offers an underutilized source of payment for many SE children. Organizations such as University Departments of Pediatrics, state programs for special needs children, or county and state health departments with experience in both the needs of special education pupils and the state MA program can assist schools in use of MA. We hope to see this program replicated.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Steven C. Russell
Co-Presenter: Veronica Gold
Ellen Williams
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

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Project RAISE: Rural America Institute for Special Educators - A Preservice Teacher Training Program for Rural Special Education

INTRODUCTION

Project RAISE (Rural America Institute for Special Educators) is a unique preservice teacher training program specifically designed for preparing special educators for the demands of rural settings. The project is being conducted by the Department of Special Education at Bowling Green State University and concentrates on training special educators in a twelve county region in northwest Ohio. The Northwest Ohio Special Education Regional Resource Center (SERRC) has identified the school systems within this twelve county region as being predominantly rural.

National Needs for Training in Rural Special Education

As we begin the decade of the 1990's, we are faced with the need to provide more appropriate training for special education teachers for rural settings. This training project attempts to address this need.

On a national level, there is evidence of a shortage in the teaching field of special education. According to the 1988 annual report from the Association for School, College and University Staffing (ASCUS), there is a considerable shortage in the supply of special education teachers based on relative demand. Those special education fields with the greatest teacher shortages are in the areas of emotionally disturbed, learning disabilities, and multihandicapped (Akin, 1988). Thus, there continues to be a need for training special education teachers at the preservice level in order to ameliorate the supply and demand discrepancy.

With approximately 67% of the nation's 16,000 public school districts being classified as "rural" (Sher, 1978), it would seem imperative to continue addressing the educational needs of rural America. Rural school environments have been characterized as: having higher poverty levels than nonrural settings; increasing in population; and not having increases in tax bases. Rural schools have been characterized as: having scarce professional resources, having costlier services than urban areas due to transportation requirements and staffing needs, and serving greater percentages of handicapped students than urban areas (Helge, 1984).

While the passage of Public Law 94-142 (The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975) has helped in increasing the number of handicapped students being identified and served in rural areas, there are still numerous problems inherent within the special education delivery systems for rural America. National research conducted under the auspices of the U.S. Office of Special Education in 1983 revealed the following major problems in serving rural handicapped students: funding inadequacies; negative attitudes toward handicapped students; recruiting qualified staff; long distances between schools and services; retention of qualified staff; service provision for low-incidence handicaps; transportation inadequacies; involving parents; staff development needs; resistance to change; providing support services; and, professional isolation (Helge, 1984). Additional information from this study revealed that most teacher training institutions do not address special rural needs and circumstances in training personnel to work with rural handicapped students. This study also articulated an expressed need for providing training in generalizable noncategorical skills for special education personnel because most rural special educators are working with numerous handicapping conditions with limited specialists available.

Another critical concern relative to rural special education personnel is their high attrition rate. It has been reported that there is a 20% annual attrition rate nationally for special education teachers. In rural areas, that attrition rate can range as high as 30%-60% especially for personnel in specialized areas such as speech and physical therapists and for itinerant teachers serving low-incidence populations (McIntosh, 1986). This high attrition rate may be reduced if teachers are trained at the preservice level to work with rural special populations. It has been postulated that if rural personnel are specifically trained to work with rural handicapped, they will have greater personal and professional success (Marrs, 1984).

State of Ohio Needs for Training in Rural Special Education

Based on information from Ohio's Comprehensive System of Professional Development (CSPD) plan (October 1988), Ohio's institutions of higher education graduated 1,754 special education personnel in 1987. Projections for graduates in special education for 1988 and 1989 were 1,850 and 1,925, respectively. While it might appear that Ohio teacher training institutions are producing an adequate number of special education personnel, it should be noted that Ohio's State Division of Teacher Education and Certification had to issue 1,225 temporary special education certificates from January 1 through December 31, 1988.

Two related personnel training needs at the state level which are relevant to this project include new state requirements for teacher certification. As of July 1, 1987, all first year teachers must complete a one-year entry-year program under the mentorship of certified, experienced teachers. These new regulations also require that certification renewals from professional to permanent certification will require applicants to acquire a Master's degree.

Regional Needs for Training in Rural Special Education

The Northwest Ohio Special Education Regional Resource Center (SERRC) services an area of 13 counties. This SERRC has identified twelve of its 13 counties as being predominantly rural in their service delivery systems of education. Within this regional area of northwest Ohio, there is a total Average Daily Membership of 175,912 students of which 11% or 19,366 students have been identified as handicapped. With nearly 20,000 special needs students being served in the twelve county area, it should be noted that there are a number of teachers who have been hired to teach these special education classes are under temporary certification.

Based on information reported from the Northwest Ohio SERRC in the Summer of 1988 (Ratliffe, 1988), the following special education personnel shortage was reported for the 1987-88 school year in the 13 counties of Northwest Ohio:

Area	Personnel Shortage
Preschool (age 3-5 years)	15 FTE
Special education teachers, itinerant/ consulting teachers, home/hospital teachers	
School (age 6-21 years)	
Deaf Blind	.05 FTE
Multihandicapped	26 FTE
Hearing Handicapped	0 FTE
Visually Handicapped	1.8 FTE
Orthopedically/Other Health Handicapped	0 FTE
Severe Behavior Handicapped	16 FTE
Developmentally Handicapped	9 FTE
Specific Learning Disabilities	35.1 FTE

In an attempt to provide further documentation for a regional need for special education preparation for rural settings, letters of support from regional personnel were elicited, and obtained. Additionally, a needs assessment was disseminated to northwest Ohio county superintendents, selected building principals, selected special education teachers, and selected special education supervisors. These surveys were developed to gain information on the needs found in rural special education within the twelve county area in northwest Ohio.

The superintendents' surveys were sent to each of the twelve county superintendents and to each of the twelve county boards of mental retardation school superintendents in northwest Ohio (N = 24). Based on a 71% return rate (N = 17), the following results were compiled relative to rural special education:

- 100% of the respondents self-identified as having primarily rural school districts within their county;
- 76% indicated it was difficult to hire qualified special education teachers for rural areas (particularly in the areas of severe behavior handicaps, multihandicapped and developmentally handicapped);
- 53% found it difficult to retain (for longer than 3 years) special education teachers for rural areas (particularly in the areas of severe behavior handicaps, multihandicapped and developmentally handicapped);
- the average percentage of special education teachers in these counties holding master's degrees is 32%;
- 88% of the respondents indicated that they found it difficult to hire qualified support personnel (particularly in the areas of physical therapy, occupational therapy, school psychology

and adapted physical education;

- 53% of the respondents found it difficult to retain (longer than 3 years) qualified support personnel (particularly in the areas of physical therapy, occupational therapy, school psychology and adapted physical education.

The superintendents selected the following factors contributing to the difficulty in hiring/retaining qualified special education teaches and support personnel for rural areas: 70% salary; 59% lack of certificated personnel; 53% travel distances; 29% social isolation; 24% professional isolation; 24% career opportunities; 24% lack of training for rural settings; and, 24% conservatism of rural communities.

The second survey was sent to four educators (two administrators or supervisors in special education and two special education teachers) in each of the twelve rural counties in northwest Ohio. Based on a return rate of 64% (N = 29), the following information was compiled:

- the average number of years working in a rural education setting for respondents was 10.8 years;
- some reasons cited by survey participants for selecting rural employment included: more contact with colleagues, less red tape, hometown, husband's employment, challenge of meeting money needs, first job offer, likes rural kids and schools better than urban, good area to raise family, and comfortable because they grew up in rural area;
- some of the disadvantages of working in rural educational settings cited were: small number of low incidence handicaps cause transportation and funding problems, isolation from other special education contacts, limited special education options, multiple responsibilities, lack of support services, limited resources, and low salary;
- some of the advantages of working in rural education included: freedom to develop creative program options; lack of bureaucracy; fewer problems with parents; better communication between faculty, staff, administration; smaller class sizes; and, greater community support;
- 93% of the respondents reported that they had no formal coursework or inservice training specifically relative to providing special education in a rural setting;
- 66% reported that they would participate in coursework or inservice programs on rural special education if they were offered.

The following represent the teaching competencies most frequently selected by participants as being important: (the percentage of respondents selecting the competency is noted).

%	Competency
83	Application on behavioral analysis to student behavior
79	Using curricula for program planning
76	Knowledge of alternative teaching strategies
72	Selection and adaptation of appropriate academic materials
69	Using local employment needs to develop vocational training

%	Competency (Cont'd.)
69	Selection/administration of appropriate assessment tools
66	Use of consultation with parents
62	Age appropriate skill training
59	Use of medical emergency intervention strategies
59	Application of time management strategies
59	Coordination of multifactored assessment activities
59	Use of consultation with peers
55	Use of alternative communication systems
55	Behavioral analysis for academic/vocational training
45	Federal/state mandates for educating handicapped students
41	Selecting adaptive devices for physical/cognitive development
41	Designing adaptive devices for physical/cognitive development

Participants also selected the following as important services in which special educators should be skilled in assisting with carry-over supplemental services:

%	Service Areas
76	Language development therapy
72	Occupational therapy
66	Physical therapy
66	Speech therapy
66	Guidance and counseling
62	Adaptive physical education
55	Music therapy
48	Art therapy
38	Mobility orientation

Project RAISE was then designed to address the needs of improving special education services delivery in rural areas. As training programs prepare special educators for rural settings, special education systems in rural America will reflect improved service delivery at program and instructional levels. In this type of system, there is likely to be a reduction in personnel recruitment problems and an amelioration of retention problems, as well as an increase in the quality and quantity of services being provided for handicapped infants, children, and youth.

PROJECT RAISE: THE TRAINING PROGRAM

Project and Program Goals

This preservice training program for rural special education personnel has been designed to utilize knowledge and skills from both special education and rural education. In addition, this program has been designed to incorporate the rural special education classroom as a vital training component. In other words, the design of this program has taken into account the rich resource provided by direct experience in rural special education settings. Further, this program has been designed to directly influence the problems associated with retention of rural special education personnel. As will be seen when examining the criteria for participant selection, maximum emphasis has been placed on locating and training those participants most likely to remain in rural special education settings for three or more years. It should also be noted that all participants of Project RAISE are considered preservice relative to training specifically for rural special education.

Specific goals. 1. To train teachers to effectively meet the academic, social, vocational, and ancillary service needs of rural special education students.

2. To improve the quality of training to rural special education preservice trainees.

3. To assist in the recruitment and retention of teaching personnel specifically trained for rural special education.

Program objectives. 1.1 To establish project staff.

1.2 To recruit project trainees from both the senior level undergraduate student population, and from the existing practicing rural special education personnel.

1.3 To obtain a commitment from rural school districts with participating practicing special educators to allow teaming of a preservice teacher with a practicing teacher and on-the-job practica.

1.4 To train teachers to effectively meet the needs of rural special education settings.

1.5 To maintain, beyond the funding of this project, a training program to meet the specific needs of rural special education teachers.

2.1 To provide content coursework, practicum experiences, and other educational experiences which are specifically designed to develop and enhance skills and abilities of personnel for practice in rural special education settings.

2.2 To obtain materials and resources that facilitate participants in achieving knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary for teaching in a rural special education setting.

3.1 To increase the number of special education teaching personnel with training for rural special education settings.

3.2 To increase the likelihood that those trained specifically for rural special education will be employed and remain in service in rural areas.

Recruitment of Students

Special education personnel shortages in northwest Ohio are resultant from an inability to attract, employ, and retain qualified special educators serving multihandicapped and severe behaviorally handicapped students. However, recent research suggests that individuals currently living in rural areas are more likely to commit themselves to service there. Of the 79 counties represented by students at BGSU, 74 are rural. Further, all rural counties within the Project RAISE service area have BGSU students residing within them who have declared a special education major. Thus, there is an ample pool of students who reside in rural areas from which to select project participants on a statewide or local basis.

Project RAISE attracts a significant number of well-qualified students from all rural counties of Ohio. The Project's association with the Department of Special Education at BGSU allows it to profit from an earned reputation for "state-of-the-art" teacher training programs and is able to attract very capable students as a result. Project RAISE benefits from its affiliation with the Department relative to the selection of preservice project applicants from a qualified pool of candidates, and allows selection of those graduate degree candidates that are most likely to remain in rural settings once trained.

Project Faculty

In addition to the instructional roles of the project co-directors, additional faculty have been selected for participation in the project from the Departments of Foundation and Inquiry, and Administration and Supervision in the College of Education and Allied Professions as well as the Physical Therapy Program and Department of Communication Disorders in the College of Health and Human Services. The role of these staff members has been to: 1) use needs assessment data gathered by the project co-directors to develop or enhance training modules which promote integration of ancillary service in special education programs; 2) develop communication and consultation skills necessary for continued collaboration between parents, administrators, medical personnel, ancillary school personnel and special educators; 3) teach special educators professional competencies related to their discipline necessary for collaborative efforts between special educators and ancillary personnel; and, 4) work with project evaluators to determine whether coursework and practice experiences lead to improved integration of ancillary services in special educational programs of handicapped students.

Pre-Training Program

First five students are selected from among undergraduate seniors majoring in special education. The previously outlined recruitment criteria is applied to these candidates. At the same time, five school systems in Northwest Ohio which meet the criteria for rural school systems, and which employ special education personnel are selected for participation in the project. Contracts for the use of these rural special education sites as practicum sites are established during this phase of the project.

In cooperation with the administrators and teachers of the five rural school systems in Northwest Ohio identified for participation in the training project, five practicing special education teachers are selected for participation in the project. Again, the criteria enumerated above for recruitment of participants will be employed here in order to better ensure retention of trained personnel in the rural settings. Furthermore, the practicing rural special education teachers selected for participation in this project are viewed as preservice in the sense that these participants have not experienced previous training specifically for rural special education. Selection of all participants occurs during the fall academic semester.

An advisory board comprised of parents of youth who are handicapped and educated by rural schools, administrators of rural school systems, teachers -- both special and regular -- from rural school systems, Project RAISE faculty, and identified student participants is given the charge to advise and critique project development and implementation

An informational conference is held during the later part of the fall academic term. The purpose of this conference is to advise all identified participants in Project RAISE (i.e., the five identified senior undergraduate students, the five practicing rural special education teachers, the members of the advisory board, and the established interdisciplinary teaching faculty) of the scope and sequence of the program in which they are participating.

During the spring academic semester, the five identified senior undergraduate students are placed with the five practicing special education teachers for completion of the student teaching requirement prior to these senior students' graduation and certification. This allows the development of five teams, each comprised of a practicing rural special education teacher and a senior undergraduate student who is completing requirements for certification in special education. Along with this student teaching experience and development of teams, special seminars are scheduled in order to aid in the bonding between student teacher and practicing teacher, to aid in understanding the needs of rural special educators, and to assist communication between participants of the project and the project staff.

Graduate Training Program

During the summer, an educational institute for the identified participants is held. All participants (it should be noted that the senior undergraduate participants who have been student teaching with the practicing rural special education teachers have graduated following the spring semester; these students then matriculate into the graduate program in special education for the remainder of their participation in the project; further, it should be noted that these formerly undergraduate students are henceforth referred to as preservice teachers to avoid confusing them with the identified practicing rural special education teachers) are in residence at BGSU for a summer educational institute through which each participant accrues 13 semester hours of graduate credit, applicable toward a Master of Education in Special Education degree with a specialization in rural special education. The coursework involved in this institute provides instruction in statistics and research methodology, foundations and instructional strategies in rural special education, problems and issues in rural special education, and advisement on the graduate program (EDFI 596: Statistics in Education; EDFI 597: Research in Education; EDSE 549: Problems and Issues for Personnel in Rural Special Education; EDSE 580: Foundations and Instructional Strategies for Rural Special Education; and, EDSE 580: Professional Development Seminar in Special Education). As a part of this coursework, participant teams (formed by a preservice teacher and a practicing rural special education teacher) in Project RAISE identify and plan research projects which expand knowledge and abilities regarding rural special education, and are carried out during the next academic year.

During the next academic year, the preservice teacher and the practicing rural special education teacher continue to function as a team in providing instruction to special education students in the rural school system. This team continues to operate through assignment to the same classroom and school setting utilized during the student teaching phase of the project.

In addition, both preservice teachers and practicing rural special education teachers return to the university setting for content coursework. The two members of each team rotate between "on-campus" instruction and practicum experience. In this manner, the project attempts to minimize the disruption of the instructional process within the special education classroom. Thus, while one individual of a team is receiving training and coursework at the university, the other is completing practicum assignments in the rural school setting and staffing the rural special education classroom.

The following table delineates the rotation schedule for the members of a team.

Team Schedule

School Term	On Campus for Coursework	Special Education Classroom/Practicum
Summer	Practicing Teacher Preservice Teacher	
Fall (1st 8 weeks)	Preservice Teacher	Practicing Teacher
(2nd 8 weeks)	Practicing Teacher	Preservice Teacher
Spring (1st 8 weeks)	Preservice Teacher	Practicing Teacher
(2nd 8 weeks)	Practicing Teacher	Preservice Teacher

While a participating teacher (either practicing or preservice) is "on-campus" for coursework and training, he/she returns to the rural special education classroom to complete practicum assignments and research activities as well as to maintain the integrity of the handicapped student/teacher relationship.

The coursework taken during the fall and spring semester of the academic year is distributed over the following areas: adapted instructional procedures; selection and design of adapted devices; consultation with parents, support personnel, administration, community resource persons; assessment; speech and language therapy; vocational training; and transition programming. During the fall semester the participants in the project enroll in the following courses and practicum: EDSE 580: Advanced Instructional Design for Rural Special Education; EDSE 580: Collaboration for Related Educational Services - I; and, EDSE 562: Practicum in Rural Special Education - I. During the spring semester the participants in the project enroll in the following courses and practicum: EDSE 580: Consultation Skills for Rural Special Education; EDSE 580: Collaboration for Related Educational Services - II; and, EDSE 562: Practicum in Rural Special Education - II.

During these two semesters the participants of Project RAISE accrue a total of 24 semester hours toward their Master of Education in Special Education degree with specialization in rural special education. Upon successful completion of the spring semester these participants have accrued a grand total (including those hours accumulated during the previous summer) of 37 semester hours of credit.

This group of participants then complete the project during the following summer term by completing their research projects. They accomplish this by enrolling in EDSE 599: Thesis Research for 3 semester hours of credit. Upon completion of this experience, and the summer term, all five preservice teachers and all five practicing rural special education teachers graduate from Bowling Green State University each with a Master of Education in Special Education degree with specialization in rural special education.

Program Content

The following discussion provides the reader with information concerning the specific content and organization of Project RAISE. This discussion includes delineation of the courses and practica participants experience during Project RAISE; the competencies that emphasized throughout this training program that specifically address the needs of rural special education teaching personnel; explanation of the demonstration or practicum experiences in which trainees participate for the purpose of evaluating learning and application; incorporation of current research on the needs of rural special education teaching personnel; and, learner outcomes and their evaluation.

Program competencies.

EDSE 549: Problems and Issues for Personnel in Rural Special Education, includes the global concepts and competencies identified by Helge (1983), and elaborated by Marrs (1984) related to an "understanding of the context of a rural school and its environment," and, "knowledge concerning the state-of-the-art of rural special education," (Marrs, 1984, p. 338).

EDSE 580: Foundations and Instructional Strategies for Rural Special Education, includes the global concepts and competencies identified by Helge (1983), and elaborated by Marrs (1984) related to "understanding the differences involved in serving handicapped students in rural and urban environments," and, "knowledge of effective service delivery models for rural handicapped children (including low-incidence handicaps such as severely emotionally disturbed, hearing impaired, and visually impaired)," (Marrs, 1984, p. 338).

EDSE 580: Advanced Instructional Design for Rural Special Education, includes the global competency identified by Helge (1983), and elaborated by Marrs (1984) related to "an awareness of alternate resources to provide services to rural handicapped students and skills to identify alternate resources," (Marrs, 1984, p. 338).

EDSE 580: Collaboration for Related Educational Services - I, includes the global competency identified by Helge (1983), and elaborated by Marrs (1984) related to developing "skills in working with citizens and agencies in rural communities to facilitate cooperation among schools and service agencies to serve handicapped students," (Marrs, 1984, p. 338).

EDSE 580: Collaboration for Related Educational Services - II, includes the global competency identified by Helge (1983), and elaborated by Marrs (1984) related to demonstrating an "understanding of personal development skills (a) for their own professional growth and (b) to build a local support system in their rural environment," (Marrs, 1984, p. 338).

EDSE 580: Consultation Skills for Rural Special Education, includes the global concepts and competencies identified by Helge (1983), and elaborated by Marrs (1984) related to demonstrating "skills in working with parents of rural handicapped students," and, developing "skills in working with peer professionals from rural environments," (Marrs, 1984, p. 338).

EDFI 596: Statistics in Education, provides participants with knowledge and skills related to statistics as a tool in education and research, and includes descriptive statistics, transformation of scores, sampling and probability, linear correlation and regression, introduction to statistical inference, and basic tests of significance. Further, this course provides participants skills in using statistical methods unique to special populations.

EDFI 597: Research in Education, provides participants with knowledge and skills related to research, and includes identification and evaluation of research problems, research designs, use of library resources, data gathering, and writing research reports. Unique to Project RAISE, this course includes the identification and planning of research projects relative to rural special education settings which team members then complete during the later phases of project participation.

EDSE 599: Thesis Research, provides participants with both credit and structure for completion of their research projects defined in EDFI 597.

EDSE 580: Professional Development Seminar in Special Education, provides participants with advisement regarding the graduate program in special education. This course includes information on available support services for graduate students, faculty research, areas of specialization, forms needing attention for completion of graduate studies, and other related topics.

Practicum experiences. The level of a participant's expertise can best be determined by how well s/he integrates what has been learned into everyday experiences. Participants in Project RAISE have the opportunity to apply what they have learned in the environment for which they are being prepared to teach. Authentic practicum situations, rural special education settings, allow the participants to apply what they have learned, and at the same time receive assistance from a supervisor which enables further improvement of skills. Practicum experiences in Project RAISE are scheduled for completion as participants enroll in both EDSE 562: Practicum in Rural Special Education - I, and EDSE 562: Practicum in Rural Special Education - II. These practicum experiences are coordinated with the content coursework so that each practicum course emphasizes specific knowledge and skills. Each practicum experience allows for periodic on-site observations, and is evaluated through multiple means (e.g., supervisor evaluation, team teacher evaluation).

EDSE 562: Practicum in Rural Special Education - I, provides participants with a supervised teaching experience in a rural special education setting. In particular, this practicum experience emphasizes those skills attained in EDSE 580: Foundations and Instructional Strategies for Rural Special Education, EDSE 580: Advanced Instructional Design for Rural Special Education, and EDSE 580: Collaboration for Related Educational Services - I.

EDSE 562: Practicum in Rural Special Education - II, provides participants with a second supervised teaching experience in a rural special education setting. In particular, this second practicum experience emphasizes those skills attained in EDSE 580: Consultation Skills for Rural Special Education, and EDSE 580: Collaboration for Related Educational Services - II.

It is intended that these practica provide participants with a rich experience in which they are able to display their knowledge and skills attained concerning the provision of special education services for rural school populations. These experiences also provide the project administration, who supervise such experiences, the opportunity to observe and evaluate each participant's learning and application of the identified competencies.

Learner outcomes and their evaluation. Rural special educators may frequently be expected to carry out a number of assignments that are above and beyond the typical job scope of the average special education teacher. These assignments may place the rural special educator in a position where s/he feels somewhat unsure of her/his capabilities because s/he hasn't received training in all of the areas of expectation. Following this need, the learner outcomes of Project RAISE are designed to incorporate such knowledge, skills, and abilities.

As a result of the course of study and the six hours of practicum experience, participants are:

-- proficient in assisting with the use of alternative communication systems;

-- able to use appropriate technologies to design adaptive devices which promote or enhance a student's physical and cognitive development;

-- able to use appropriate technologies to select adaptive devices which promote or enhance a student's physical and cognitive development;

-- able to develop vocational training sequences based on an analysis of local community employment needs;

-- able to apply behavioral analysis procedures to academic and vocational training sequences for students;

-- able to apply behavioral analysis techniques to improve student behavior;

-- able to apply appropriate consultation and communication principles with peers;

-- able to apply appropriate consultation and communication principles with parents;

-- able to select and administer appropriate assessment tools irrespective of student age or handicap;

-- able to coordinate multifactored assessment activities;

-- able to select and adapt academic materials that are appropriate to student age, interest, and ability;

-- able to use both regular and special education curricula for program planning;

-- able to apply alternative teaching methodologies and accommodation strategies;

-- able to provide age appropriate social skill training to students;

-- able to apply time management strategies (e.g., in order to solve scheduling problems);

-- able to apply federal and state mandates for the education of handicapped students;

-- able to use approved medical emergency intervention strategies; and,

-- able to assist in carry-over activities related to supplemental services, including physical therapy, occupational therapy, speech/language therapy, guidance and counseling, art therapy, music therapy, adaptive physical education, and mobility orientation.

Evaluation of these learner outcomes occur through various means. These methods of evaluation include observation of the application of such knowledge, skills, and abilities in practicum settings; quizzes and tests; development of course-related products (e.g., assessment files; behavior analysis programs); and, other means as deemed appropriate through the development of the courses and experiences, and through consultation with related services professionals.

Evaluative Analyses and Problem Areas

Since we are still in our first year of training individuals in Project RAISE, it is a bit early to present evaluative data on the program's effectiveness. Many planned measures of evaluation will only be able to be conducted following completion of the program by the participants. However, course evaluations and qualitative evaluations at the completion of each course and each term have provided some preliminary information.

Participants have reported that each of the courses experienced to date have been above average in organization, the materials employed, the completion of course goals, and the overall evaluation. Furthermore, when asked to evaluate the instructors of the courses and practica, participants have indicated above average evaluation of their interest in students, ability to organize, ability to facilitate, knowledge of course content, provision of feedback, and overall evaluation.

Qualitative comments offered by participants included such statements as, "Useful and practical to my teaching," "Interesting and informative," "I enjoyed meeting with other teachers/professionals to consult," "I think this class is very helpful in learning to work with others for the good of the students," and, "This class can be very useful to us when in the schools." Comments such as these lead us to believe that our training program may be on the right track.

On the other hand, there are several problem areas that will need to be resolved with succeeding groups of participants. For example, the project faculty may have relied too heavily on area administrators to assist in recruiting and selecting practicing teachers for this project. Two of our initial candidates did not remain in the project, and this may have resulted from a misunderstanding on the part of area administrators in selecting potential candidates. The flexibility required for a practicing teacher to fully share his or her classroom for a year must be understood. Candidates chosen who did not exhibit this flexibility did not continue in the program.

We also lost one of our undergraduate candidates. This was possibly due to the project faculty, when selecting undergraduate candidates, not recognizing the stress that such a program would place on students who have been in higher education for the previous four to five years, and who are experiencing other life alterations (e.g., getting married). The impact of such factors must be realized if the program is to succeed.

One other concern that bears consideration is the method used for determining effective pairings. Even if the above two concerns are answered relative to the selection of project participants, once those participants are selected they must be paired. At present, we are able to test the pairing through the student teaching experience. However, as this project moves away from federal support dollars, some of the more costly aspects of the program may need modification. We are presently attempting to explore ways in which this pairing can be tested or better ensured without the use of the student teaching experience.

CONCLUSION

The need for special educators in rural settings to have more comprehensive preparation is obvious. Many resources, services, and specialized personnel are frequently unavailable to the rural handicapped student on a timely and consistent basis. Consequently, it has been shown that special education staff in rural settings are required to possess broader and more diverse skills, to be more able to operate independent of other special educators and other special education services, and to be highly skilled at adaptation and accommodation, as well as a host of other more specific abilities. In order to address these needs, a preservice teacher training program -- Project RAISE -- has been developed to prepare teachers for service in rural northwest Ohio special education settings.

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ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Alfred Mackdanz
Co-Presenter:
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

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EASE OF TRANSITION THROUGH DIRECT SERVICE

INTRODUCTION

High school students, their parents, and the special education staff within the Green Valley AEA 14 catchment area have been involved in the Transition Program since the spring of 1989. Since that time, 230 transition plans have been written and are being monitored. At the present time, the Transition Program is serving students in 20 school districts, beginning at the tenth grade and continuing on for a minimum of three years after they have exited the school program.

DEVELOPMENT

There were three important factors of consideration when developing the Transition Program in Southwest Central Iowa:
1) geography, 2) Work Experience Program, and 3) simplicity.

The area Green Valley AEA 14 serves covers 3,800 square miles and has a population of 72,000, or a population density of 18.9 persons per acre. Twenty to twenty-five percent of Green Valley is at or below poverty level, with two of the counties being at the bottom of the economic ladder in the state. Except for Amtrak, which transverses the southern part of the state, there is no easily accessible public transportation available, beyond that of a few established week-day routes through a system called The Public Trolley.

A second important consideration in developing the Transition Program was the philosophy of the Work Experience Program; the foundation of the Transition Program itself. From the inception of the Work Experience Program, our instructors have worked directly with the students. The instructors not only place students on various job sites but work directly with students in the classroom. This means individualized programs, tailoring each program to fit the needs of the student, i.e. assessing the student's skills, abilities, and interests both in the classroom and at the work place. By closure, the instructor is knowledgeable of the student's capabilities and thereby can serve as an important resource when it comes to vocational and community placement for the student.

In the early development of the Transition Program, we realized in order to effectively serve this sparse population, which is spread over a wide area, we would need to develop a program that would allow flexibility as well as continuity amongst the twenty school districts, yet still be able to effectively serve both students and parents alike. Our main objectives then were to simplify the process of transition, give responsibility back to the students and parents, and provide personal service.

TRANSITION PLAN

Transition is introduced at the time of the special education staffing in tenth grade with the Transition Coordinator in attendance. As long as the student receives some type of services through special education, and those services continue while the student is in high school, the Transition Coordinator continues to be a member of the student's staffing team.

From the day transition was implemented in the school districts, the program was not considered as being separate, either in the ensuing discussion during the development of the Individual Education Plan or in the implementation of the plan itself. Transition is viewed as a normal process and is accepted as such by most of the school districts. Agencies in this area view the Transition Program as the appropriate linkage between the school system and the community at large.

The transition plan itself consists only of one page and lists services and agencies that are available (Form A). Beside each agency and services listed are open spaces to fill in the dates when the service/agency is discussed, when contact was made, and when the agency accepted the student as a client. The plan also provides space to write out the transition goals (Form B) which would be appropriate for that student. Because the transition plan is on NCR paper, a copy is immediately given to the parent, one to the school, and the third retained by the Coordinator.

While the staffing is still in session, the appropriate transition goals are transferred on to the IEP by numbers (i.e. "The Transition Program is implemented by the use of Goals 1, 2, and 3."). The objectives to carry out those transition goals are written by the special education teacher according to the plan set forth during the staffing. By the close of the staffing, no additional forms need to be written. In summary, the transition plan becomes an integral part of the educational plan.

TRANSITION GOALS

One other aspect of the transition plan needs to be mentioned: transition goals. We have developed a list of eight transition goals (Form B) which can be drawn from when the team discusses the needs of the student. While there may be other goals that could be included, we feel the eight listed cover the essentials. At no time are more than four of the goals listed on the Transition Plan.

TRANSITION QUESTIONNAIRE

Depending upon the student's level of functioning within the community, as well as within the school setting, a survival questionnaire (Form C, available upon request) at the time of the staffing is given by the Transition Coordinator to the student to take home and fill out (Refer to Goal 3, Form B). This questionnaire covers the following areas: social skills; domestic; vocational; transportation; leisure; education and training; financial need; post-high school planning, and other. Because the questionnaire is designed with the understanding that individuals have differing views when perceiving the skills and abilities of others, an identical transition questionnaire is given to the student's parents and special education teacher to fill out. Parents, students, and teachers fill out the questionnaire according to their individual perceptions as to the student's capabilities, having the necessary skills to survive independently within the community, as well as to the degree of independence the student may have. A "Yes" answer indicates a greater degree of independence. A "No" answer on the other hand indicates a greater need for support and/or additional training time. A quick rundown of "yes" and "no" circled answers in each of the main areas provide strong indicators in the areas that will need to be strengthened before transition can realistically be completed.

The Transition Coordinator does the summary of comparisons (Form D available upon request) noting the conflicts or lack of conflicts with each individual's perception of the student's survival skills. The team uses these conflicts as one additional source of information to draw from when writing specific objectives. The decision to address these misconceptions will depend upon the urgency to resolve these conflicts, the element of time as to when these conflicts need to be resolved, and whether or not the conflict or perceived need will create a barrier to successful job and/or community placement. We have found that this questionnaire has opened lines of communication, and has helped the parent become more aware of decisions they need to make, and what area of survival skills need to be strengthened. The result has been a student who is more capable of functioning within a community setting.

MONITORING

The main thrust of the Transition Program is to give the responsibility of transition back to the student and parent. Our goal is to simplify, not confuse, the process by which responsibility can be successfully returned to the student and parent. The job of the Transition Coordinator is then to monitor that process, and to make sure the process is begun for the student at the earliest possible time and still be valid at the time of graduation or exiting the school program.

The monitoring system was developed and then modified to provide essential information necessary to assist in developing an appropriate transition plan for each student, as well as to monitor the progress towards reaching the goals set at the time of the staffing. The essential information for monitoring includes: what has happened, what is to occur, when it will occur, has it occurred, what services are to be offered, and essential biographical information relating to the student's abilities and placement in the educational program.

This information is easily included on a half page (Form E) through a computer program known as Desktop© and with the use of a Macintosh SE® computer. The program allows multiple files to be brought up at one time. Within minutes, the data that has been accumulated on each individual student can be collected, distributed, modified, and compared, depending upon the need for such information.

Information found on the screen includes the following headings:

1. Name
2. Address
3. Parents
4. Disability
5. SS number
6. Date of Birth
7. Grade
8. School
9. Teacher
10. Graduation Date
11. Phone
12. Transition Accept.
13. Transition Date
14. Transition a
15. Transition b
16. Read
17. Priority
18. Information
19. Strong
20. Weak
21. Work Exp. Instr.
22. Work Exp. Refer.
23. Work Exp. Cont.
24. Voc Rehab. Refer.
25. Voc Rehab. Cont.
26. JTPA Refer.
27. JTPA Cont.
28. DHS
29. Post Sec. Refer.
30. Post Sec. Cont.
31. SSI/DDU
32. Support. Emp.
33. Grp. Home Ref.
34. Grp. Home Cont.
35. Rep. Number

Clarification of specific heading titles:

#9 Assigned special education teacher

#12 Transition may have been accepted at a later date, or the same date of the staffing

#13 Date of the staffing does not automatically mean that transition services were offered or accepted

#14 The date of the second year's staffing.

#15 The date of the third staffing.

#16 If some type of communication is needed, the date when contact is required is placed here for later flagging.

#17 Any piece of information that requires immediate attention

#18 Essential information to help clarify ease of transition; also intelligence test scores

#19 Assets the student has, including strengths in education and/or vocational

#20 Deficits, weaknesses, limitations

#26/27 Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA)

#28 Department of Human Services (DHS) includes mental health,welfare, social workers, food stamps, etc.

#29/30 Community colleges, vocational schools, trade schools, etc.
#31 SSI/DDU social security benefits both for income eligibility and disability eligibility
#32 Workshop evaluations, as well as employment
#35 Keeping track of number of students, and for identification purposes

Prior to the first staffing the Transition Coordinator attends, the above form is filled out with pertinent information obtained from the special education file located at the agency. Examination of the file by the Transition Coordinator, covering the special education history of the student, provides a longitudinal study of the progress or lack of progress being made. There have been times where specific discrepancies have been noted and subsequently brought to the attention of the team, i,e. psychological reports that appear to be in conflict when done by two or more different school psychologists. Questions relating to transition as well as to the academic progress of the student can then be more specific and vocational based. Bringing this information to the staffing allows the Coordinator to become an integral part of the staffing rather than an outsider viewing only one aspect of the student's life.

Because the Coordinator attends annual individual educational planning meetings, appropriate release of information forms can be filled out at the time and as needed. Integration of the Transition Program with the development of the IEP utilizes the most efficient time for all the members of the team.

Upon returning to the agency, the Transition Coordinator transfers the new and revised information back into the computer. Appropriate phone calls are made with various agencies and services to set up appointments with the student, and the special education teacher is contacted informing them of the appointment the student is to make. Letters are written to parents to explain once more the process that took place at the meeting, as well as to let them know that the contacts were made. Because the information has been integrated within the computer, the Transition Coordinator is capable of doing a variety of tasks as well as to coordinate the various steps taking place as the student progresses through the school system.

EXIT INTERVIEW

To further enhance the quality of the Transition Program, the Coordinator does individual contacts with all graduating seniors within the last month of their senior year. An individual exit interview is done with each student (Form F). This exit interview serves a two-fold purpose: 1) to allay any fears the student may still have regarding his/her future, i.e. the transition plan is still in effect, and 2) any problems that may have been encountered can still be effectively resolved while the student is still in school. On the flip side, if a student has refused services, though the recommendations were made at the time of the staffing, another opportunity is afforded him/her in an attempt to persuade the student to accept services. To some, the latter may appear to be taking the freedom away from the student; but in fact, a number of students upon graduating from high school, fiercely maintain their independence from any assistance either through agencies or through their own need to survive on their own. Last year, a number of students had verifiable summer employment in one of the mountain states, thus declining the services. As fall approached and these students were laid off, they looked again at the various services that had been offered while they were still in school. To their consternation, these students' names were now placed on the bottom of the waiting list, thus delaying services they wanted.

Although the exit interview does not always guarantee positive results in maintaining a continued vocational plan, the interview does allow the Coordinator to reassure the student that, should a change take place, the individual student still would have access to services provided by the Coordinator, along with current information that is maintained in the computer file.

Again, the flexibility of the Transition Program to become directly involved, provides an effective, personally dynamic service to the schools, the communities, and, most importantly, to the students and parents we serve.

VOCATIONAL PLAN

One problem which has been encountered is preventing duplication of efforts between agencies and the work programs, both in terms of exploration and on-the-job type training. In order to prevent duplication, a form (Form G) was developed to better facilitate the flow of information between school and service deliverers. As was mentioned at the beginning of this paper, the form allows the Work Experience Instructor's knowledge of the potential and abilities of his/her students to be tapped. This format has enhanced the process of communication, as well as broadening the spectrum of vocational choices open to the student.

CONCLUSION

The main points of our Transition Program are:

1. Shared responsibility between family and professionals in developing a vocational plan,
2. Making responsible decisions by informed parents/students,
3. Guidance through the transition process from school to the community,
4. A developed tracking process that is easy to utilize and access,
5. Professionals being creative in working with parents/students and other professionals,
6. Giving ownership of the transition planning to parents/students alike, and
7. With students now having a clearer picture as to who they are, students are better able to advocate for themselves when interviewing for jobs and when talking with instructors at the post-secondary level.

GV GREEN VALLEY AREA EDUCATION AGENCY 14
Division of Special Education, Transitional Services
1405 N. Lincoln, Creston, IA 50801 / (515)782-8443

TRANSITION PROGRAM DATA

NAME____________________ SS#____________________

PROGRAM____________________ GRADE LEVEL____________________

STAFFING DATE____________________ TEACHER____________________

	OFFERED			CONTACT	ACCEPTED
Transition Program	Yes	No	Date:________	Date:________	Date:________
JTPA	Yes	No	Date:________	Date:________	Date:________
Work Experience Program	Yes	No	Date:________	Date:________	Date:________
Vocational Rehabilitation	Yes	No	Date:________	Date:________	Date:________
Post -Secondary Living	Yes	No	Date:________	Date:________	Date:________
Post-Secondary Education	Yes	No	Date:________	Date:________	Date:________
Job Service	Yes	No	Date:________	Date:________	Date:________
Social Services	Yes	No	Date:________	Date:________	Date:________
Supervised Living	Yes	No	Date:________	Date:________	Date:________
Supervised Work	Yes	No	Date:________	Date:________	Date:________

GOAL____

GOAL____

GOAL____

GOAL____

GOAL____

(FORM - A)

Transition Goals

GOAL 1 Vocational planning will be determined by student's interests, needs, and abilities.

GOAL 2 Linkage to appropriate service deliverers will be developed to help student in community planning.

GOAL 3 Adaptation skills needed for community adjustment will be determined through quarterly assessment of student's strengths in that area.

GOAL 4 Adjustment to curriculum scheduling will be developed in line with post-high school plans.

GOAL 5 Curriculum scheduling will be developed in line with post-high school plans.

GOAL 6 Community placement will be determined by availability of services, keeping with student's needs.

GOAL 7 Modified graduation plans will be determined by student's readiness to adapt to a non-school environment.

GOAL 8 Community placement will be determined by student's needs and vocational opportunities.

Name SS# DOB Rep No

Address Grade School READ

Parents Teacher Grad Date

Disab Phone Goals Trans Acep

Trans date Trans a Trans b

Priority

Information

Strong

Weak

WEP I Post Sec Ref Post Sec Ct

WEP Re WEP Ct Supportive

VR Re VR Ct DHS Sup Lvg Ct

JTPA Re JTPA Ct SSI DDU Shel Emp Ct

(FORM E)

GV AEA 14

Graduation

Other

TGIF Exit Interview

Date

Name

Address

Phone ( )

Marital Single ☐ Engaged ☐ Married ☐

Schooling

Training

Employment

Wages

Benefits

Military

Branch Enlisted Term

Group Home

Needs

(FORM F)

GV AEA 14
POST-SECONDARY VOCATIONAL PLANNING

Name ____________________

School ____________________

Grad.date ____________________

	ASSIGNED	COMPLETED
Transition Goals	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

	Test	Date	Results
Vocational Testing			

	D.O.T.	Date	Strengths/Deficits
Job Tryouts			

Vocational Capabilities Not Tapped			

	Strengths
Compensatory Skills/Abilities	

Learning Modifications/ Adaptations ____________________

____

____

Post High School

Employment Yes No ___Full Time ___Summer Employment

Education Yes No

Community College ____________________

Voc/Trade School ____________________

4 yr. College ____________________

Community Placement

Group Home Yes No ____________________ Group Home

Independent Living Yes No ____________________ Address

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(FORM G)

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Edna Herron
Co-Presenter: Jean R. Buss
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 2:45pm - 3:45pm

Edna Herron, Ph.D.
Project ACCESS - SMSU
901 South National
Springfield, MO. 65804

Jean R. Buss, M.Ed.
Section of Special Education
Department of Elementary & Secondary Education
P.O. Box 480
Jefferson City, MO. 65102

Project ACCESS
Providing Support and Technical Assistance to Rural Schools Serving Students with Autism

INTRODUCTION

Serving students with low-incidence handicapping conditions is often a challenge to educators in rural areas. This is complicated by the fact that students with many low-incidence conditions also require extremely specialized services. Teachers and related service personnel may require specialized training and staffing patterns may need to be different than they are for less unusual conditions.

Autism is just such a condition. Estimates of incidence range from 5 to 20 per 10,00 live births so many rural school districts might go many years without having a student with autism in their midst. When one does appear, however, parents, teachers, and administrators are frequently at loss to determine how these students might be best served. Students who experience autism display communication, sensory, and consequent behavior problems that are frequently challenging to families and educators alike.

In more populous areas there may be debate as to whether or not students with autism ought to be educated in homogenous groups. Generally the argument for homogenous grouping goes that working with students with autism takes such unique skills and specialized training that only a few teachers can be so trained. The proponents for this position further argue that the related services need by this population are so great that the students must be grouped together so that these services will be more readily available to them. Although it is seldom mentioned privately, the position is seldom put forward publicly that these students are just too disturbing to be integrated into the regular school population. Another group of educators argue that these students with their pronounced social and communication deficits

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can only be adequately educated in heterogeneous groups alongside their non-handicapped peers. Their position is that these students are not only entitled to education within regular classrooms but that they benefit greatly from full inclusion in programs with persons without disabilities. They maintain that isolation from the mainstream of school and society only limits interaction and thus encourages social withdrawal.

In areas that are remote from high concentrations of population the entire argument becomes moot. If there is only one student with autism residing within a 50 mile radius (as there are in several rural Missouri communities) discussions of homogenous versus heterogeneous groupings become irrelevant. The most important question becomes how to deliver services to the student in his home community.

Missouri has three urban centers and a large rural population. In order to provide support and technical assistance to schools serving students who experience autism a mechanism had to be developed for service delivery in the rural areas. A unique collaboration between the state education agency, a large regional state university, and local school districts has resulted in the development of a program that provides training and consultation for educators faced with the challenge of working with students who experience autism. In 1985 the Section of Special Education of the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (DESE), responded to the concerns of a number of parents in southwest Missouri by establishing a support service for educators. First located in a rural special education cooperative but moved in 1986 to Southwest Missouri State University (SMSU), Project ACCESS provides on-site consultation, pre-service and in-service training, and a resource lending library. Project ACCESS is supported by a direct grant from DESE to SMSU. The funds for this grant come from Part B of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142), which allows states, at their discretion, to fund innovative statewide and regional services or developmental activities. In addition to Project ACCESS, the Missouri Section of Special Education uses this discretionary money to fund a Special Education Dissemination Center, a Special Education Technology Center, Missouri LINC (a center for vocational special education), and a variety of smaller regional and local programs.

The grant funds support an Associate Director/Autism Program Specialist, two Autism Resource Specialists, a Graduate Student Assistant, and a Secretary. The grant provides general operating expenses with the University providing space for project offices, business services, a 1/8 time administrator, and a part time student worker. The grant provides funds to pay part-time area consultants (see Consultation Services below).

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GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF ACCESS ACTIVITIES

In-Service and Pre-Service Activities

Missouri does not have a teaching credential for teachers of students with autism. These students may be taught by any certificated teacher qualified to provide the services described in the IEP. School districts in Missouri are serving students with autism in a variety of educational settings including regular classrooms and classrooms for mentally retarded, learning disabled, multihandicapped, and behavior disordered students. Many of the lowest functioning students with autism are served the Missouri State Schools for the Severely Handicapped, where are located in a number of cities and towns around the state. Districts are strongly urged by DESE to seek additional training for their teachers who serve students with autism. One of the ways this training can be obtained is by attending one or more workshops presented by Project ACCESS.

Five or more workshops per year are offered in various regions of the state. The workshops are offered on a regional basis to give as many persons as possible the opportunity to attend. These workshops vary in length from one to five days. Topics include but are not limited to assessment, communication, behavioral programming, social and leisure skills, integration with non-handicapped peers, and community based programming. All training is based on principles of providing age-appropriate, functional, community referenced programming for students regardless of age and/or degree of handicap. These workshops are designed for educators, although parents and personnel from other agencies may attend if they wish. The workshops are offered on a cost recovery basis, with fees ranging from $40 to $125.

Continuing Education Units (CEUs) are available for all workshops. Academic credit can be earned for most workshops of two days or longer. Additional activities are required for academic credit, as well as payment of regular University fees. Pre-service and in-service teachers can earn additional academic credit through weekend and intersession courses on autism offered cooperatively by Project ACCESS and SMSU.

During the 1989-90 school year 8 workshops were held which were attended by over 400 persons. 50 students earned academic credit in 5 classes of which workshops formed the core content. An additional 17 students earned one hour of academic credit at a special summer weekend course offered by Project ACCESS and the SMSU Office of Continuing Education. Topics of the workshops included "Working with Autistic Students in the Schools," Evaluating Students with Autism for School Placement and Programming," Working with Children with Autism in the Preschool and Primary Grades," "Integrated Classroom Programming for Students with Au-

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tism and Related Communication and Behavior Problems," "The Autism Specialist as a Consultant."

Lending Library

A resource library of almost 500 volumes is maintained at the ACCESS offices from which materials and evaluation instruments may be borrowed. Materials related to autism and some other low incidence, severely handicapping conditions are offered. A Materials List is revised yearly to allow borrowers the most up-to-date reference list. Those wishing to utilize the library service may do so by visiting the library or by calling or writing the project office. Up to three items may be borrowed at a time. Items may be kept for up to two weeks. The Library is managed by one of the Autism Resource Specialists and is staffed by a graduate student assistant and a work/study students. During the 1989-90 school year hundreds of individuals from 62 local education agencies borrowed 500 materials packets from the library. Staff members collected and distributed over 300 individualized information packets about autism.

Consultation Services

Child-Specific Consultation: Requests for on-site consultation regarding a specific child must come from the public school administrators. Upon request referral documents including a school background data form, a parent questionnaire, and two autism checklists are sent to the school. School districts are also requested to send, if possible, a one hour video tape recording of the child in a variety of settings. Although helpful in decision making the video tape is not required to complete the referral. When all referral documents are complete and returned to ACCESS as staff member reviews the information. That staff member then makes a clinical judgement and recommends what kind of services appear to be needed. If necessary, a full staffing is held to determine whether or not this child appears to display enough autistic characteristics to warrant an on-site consultation. A previous diagnosis of autism is not necessary to obtain ACCESS consultation, however, a previous diagnosis of autism or pervasive developmental disorder is usually considered sufficient to place the child on the ACCESS caseload. More importantly, the clinical descriptions that emerge from the parent questionnaire, the school background data form, the checklists, and the videotape must point to autism as a possible, if not likely, diagnosis.

Once it is determined that a child qualifies for ACCESS services a case manager is assigned by the Autism Program Specialist. If the school district is located in the southwestern quadrant of Missouri the case manager is usually one of staff Autism Resource Specialists. Otherwise, the case manager is most often the Program Specialist who then arranges for a consultation by a specially trained ACCESS Area Consultant from the geographical area near the school (See Area **Consultants** below). The school is then contacted to set up an appointment for the Area Consultant or Resource Specialist to visit the school.

Missouri is a state that requires documentation of the existence and nature of a specific handicapping condition before a student can receive special education and/or related services. Consequently, if a child is determined to be autistic the diagnostic summary must so state. The Missouri State Compliance Plan outlines a specific definition of autism (patterned after that of the Autism Society of America) and a specific set of criteria are delineated for initial eligibility for services. The State Plan also specifies that the school's multidisciplinary team is qualified to make the diagnosis of autism, but that input from a person with experience and expertise in autism is required. ACCESS consultants are frequently asked to provide that input.

Area Consultants: Area consultants are chosen from specialists from institutions of higher education, private agencies,, and local public school districts around the state. Initially, all ACCESS consultants were university faculty members with expertise in autism, behavior management, and/or communication disorders. Occasionally, staff members from private agencies serving students with autism were used as consultants. More recently, however, the Program Specialist or Resource Specialists have visited a public school classroom and noted a teacher who was particularly effective in working with one or more students with autism. That teacher was ten asked to take ACCESS training and to become a consultant for ACCESS. In all cases, the teacher's district administrator is contacted and permission is requested for the teacher to have released time to consult. Although consent is sought from administrators, all formal agreements are made directly with the consultant and payment is made directly to her or him. Few, if any, area consultants work for ACCESS more than 5 days per school year. School districts vary as to what arrangements are made for the teacher/consultant's class during her/his absence, who pays for the substitute, and whether the teacher/consultant is granted a day of leave or has pay docked.

Training for new ACCESS Area Consultants consists of (1) attending at least one 5-day training workshop on "Working with Autistic Students in the Schools," conducted by ACCESS, (2) accompanying an ACCESS Resource Specialist or Program Specialist on at least one on-site consultation visit, and (3) attending a weekend workshop for consultants.

The content of the weekend workshop includes an overview of ACCESS policies and procedures, review of a student with autism, viewing of videotapes of the child at school and home, and participating in a mock staffing on the child. Specific training is also given on interpreting the Missouri State Compliance Plan as it related to students with autism. Information is shared regarding collaborative consultation techniques and procedures.

The Consultant Visit: When an ACCESS consultant or staff member (hereinafter, both will be referred to as "consultant," and in the feminine) visits a school and a child for the first time, the basic procedure is to observe the student in his usual classroom placement for about two hours. The consultant will usually try to accompany the child to lunch, to the playground, and to any other activities or classes in which he/she is placed to gain information about the child's performance and interactions in a variety of school settings. The consultant then spends some time discussing the program currently in place for the child with the classroom teacher who has primary responsibility for him/her. The special education administrator or principal (often the same person in rural Missouri) is asked in advance to arrange for another person to be responsible for the teacher's class after this period of observation so that she/he will be free to talk with the consultant. After this discussion with the classroom teacher the special education administrator, principal, and others who work with the child are invited to join in to discuss programming for the child and how ACCESS can best assist with this. The local school staff, with assistance from the consultant, develops whatever plans are appropriate for further evaluation and programming. The consultant rarely does actual evaluation beyond informal observation although the consultant often assists the local district in selecting appropriate evaluation instruments and procedures. Return visits are almost always programmatic in nature.

When an ACCESS consultant visits a school district she leaves the teacher a set of handwritten summary notes delineating observations and recommendations for programming. These notes are made in triplicate,with one copy being kept by the consultant and one being maintained in the ACCESS files. Formal reports are prepared by ACCESS staff only upon specific requests by the school district, although Area Consultants are asked to submit formal reports as well as the summary notes.

Further on-site consultation visits are usually arranged at the time of the first visit. At each successive visit, handwritten notes of the observation and programming suggestions are left with the staff. Intermittent telephone consultations are used to discuss particular events or strategies. The consultant keeps contact notes of each telephone consultation and these are filed to maintain continuity of service.

Beyond initial diagnosis consultation usually focuses on programming. ACCESS consultants do not advocate the use of specific curricula for students with autism. It is the ACCESS position that the best education programs are developed through a thorough analysis of behavior and an analysis of the present and future environments in which the individual with autism is expected to function. All program recommendations are grounded in the following principles:

(1) All activities and materials should be functional and community-referenced.

(2) All activities and materials should be age-appropriate.

(3) Persons with autism function best in clearly structured situations.

(4) Flexibility must be built into educational programs for students with autism.

(5) Behavior must be analyzed to determine its communicative intents and functions.

(6) Increasingly conventional communicative means must be taught to express an increasingly wide range of intents.

(7) Data must be collected and sound behavior management principles consistently applied.

(8) Students with autism should be integrated with their non-handicapped age peers the maximum extent appropriate for the individual child.

(9) Parents must be involved as primary decision makers in the child's educational program.

There is no consultation fee charged to the local school districts. The grant pays the salaries of the staff consultants and a per diem honorarium to the Area Consultants. The school district does pay the expenses of the consultant, usually limited to mileage and meals.

During the 1990-91 School year ACCESS provides 110 on-site consultant visits to 136 children in 91 school districts. Staff and consultants worked with 330 staff members and 104 parents as well as 60 staff persons from non-school agencies. Staff made 370 telephone consultations.

Program Consultation: Occasionally ACCESS is asked by a larger school district to provide consultation regarding the general program for students with autism. This can be provided on a short term, intensive basis or on an ongoing basis. During the 1990-91 school year ACCESS staff has provided one intense, short term evaluation of a program for students with autism in which the Program Specialist and Resource Specialists spent three days in the district observing in classrooms and interviewing teacher, related service providers, and administrators. An evaluation report was prepared and submitted to the administration. To months later the Program Specialist spent three days in the district assisting in the development of a revised program plan. Another district in south central Missouri expressed interest in developing an exemplary program for their students with autism and sought program consultation from Project ACCESS. During the 1990-91 school year one Resource Specialist has visited the district twice each month, provided extensive telephone consultation, in-service training for local district staff, and special education staff members have attended three ACCESS training workshops. There is not fee charged to the district for these consultations although the local district pays the expenses of the consultants.

SUMMARY

This paper has described a project in which a state department of elementary and secondary education using 94-142 Part B discretionary fund collaborates with a state university and local education agencies to provide support and technical assistance to school districts serving students with autism. Utilizing a staff of three professionals, a graduate assistant, a secretary, and a cadre of part-time area consultants, the project provides a resource lending library, in-service and pre-service training, and on-site consultation. Program activity evaluations completed by LEA personnel receiving ACCESS consultation services indicate that many needs are being met. Upon completion of ACCESS workshops, the participants express feelings of being increasingly competent to serve their students with autism. After a series of consultation visits, both teachers and administrators indicate positive to highly positive overall reactions to the experience. Almost 93% of those receiving consultation during the 1988-89 school year reported full or partial resolution of the concern that precipitated the need for consultation. These data would seem to support the notion that this service delivery model is an appropriate one for a large state having both major metropolitan areas and a widely spaced rural population.

Herron, E., Doelling, J., & Hawkins, S. (1989). Project ACCESS: a statewide project for serving students with autism. Focus on Autistic Behavior. 3:6:1-16.

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ACRES PRESENTATION M. WINSTON EGA
Presenter: ~~Egan M. Winston~~
Co-Presenter: Joan Sebastian
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 4:00pm - 5:00pm

M. Winston Egan
Associate Professor
Department of Special Education
University of Utah
Salt Lake City, Utah 84112

Joan Sebastian
Director of Rural Teacher Education
Department of Special Education
University of Utah
Salt Lake City, Utah 84112

Marshall Welch
Assistant Professor
Department of Special Education
University of Utah
Salt Lake City, Utah 84112

Effective Television Teaching: Perceptions of Those Who Count Most...Distance Learners

presented at the
"Reaching Our Potential: Rural Education in the 90's
American Council on Rural Special Education
Nashville, Tennessee
March 17-20, 1990

Effective Television Teaching: Perceptions of Those Who Count Most-Distance Learners

Introduction

More and more institutions of higher education are making use of telecommunication's technologies in delivering instruction to on-campus as well as off-campus learners (Cunningham, 1988; Egan, McCleary, Sebastian, & Lacy, 1989; Johnson, 1990a & 1990b; McCleary & Egan, 1989; Miller, 1988; Office of Technology Assessment, 1989). Off-campus or distance learners often receive their instruction through some form of television delivery system (satellite, cable, ITFS, or microwave systems). Since 1985, the Department of Special Education at the University of Utah has utilized the Utah Education Network, a sophisticated, closed circuit, television system to deliver preservice education to prospective special educators in many rural regions of Utah.

The Utah Education Network permits instructors to interact directly with distance learners. Instructors can be seen and heard by distance learners, and students in each of the rural sites can be seen and heard by their instructors. The network is totally interactive. However, there are regions of the state that are not yet served by the system. In these regions, the department makes use of a delivery system know as "Professor Plus." This system uses video recordings of interactive telecourses or typical on-campus courses coupled with rural facilitators/instructors. Professors come to students via video tape recordings. The plus part of this system is a trained master's level rural facilitator/instructor. The facilitator is responsible for conducting course learning activities, leading discussions, clarifying course assignments, providing timely feedback, and taking care of other course related functions. The department has made greater use of this delivery system over time because of the lower costs associated with this approach. Also, the "Professor Plus" system provides a broader array of options that are more responsive to the needs of distance learners. For example, there is greater flexibility in scheduling video courses at the rural sites. Learners on or off-campus who miss a class may view the video portion of the course session at a later time if necessary. Distance learners can also review each session several times if needed.

Each of the courses that have been aired through the Utah Education Network or disseminated through "Professor Plus" delivery systems has been carefully evaluated using two measures: (1) department course evaluations and (2) media evaluations. These measures employed Likert scales ratings that allow students to quantify their perceptions regarding various instructional aspects of the courses. The thrust of most of these evaluations has been quantitative in nature. However, during the fall of 1990, the program planners completed two qualitative studies of the television delivery systems using focus group methodologies.

The basic intent of the qualitative studies was to answer the question, "What makes a difference in televised instruction?" Each focus group began with this introduction:

> You have been involved in a variety of certification and master's course that have been delivered through television. The purpose of this focus group is to have you share your feelings and opinions about what makes effective televised instruction. What are the elements of televised

instruction that make it effective, interesting, and engaging. Or, to look at the converse, what things detract from the effectiveness of this type of educational delivery system?

Method

Data Collection

Participant selection. Qualitative inquiry often utilizes a small sample of participants purposefully selected (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984; Patton, 1990). Informed participants who have experienced several different kinds of televised instructional formats were identified for this study. Twenty individuals representing three rural regions in the state were invited to participate. Participants were paid fifty dollars for their involvement in the study and reimbursed for their travel costs. Two focus groups were selected from the eleven individuals who responded to the invitation to participate. Each focus group lasted about one and one half hours.

Participants received a subsequent letter which included the following two questions designed to simulate their thinking prior to the actual focus interview: 1) What really makes a difference in the effectiveness of televised instruction? and 2) What contributes to your learning and motivation in a telecourse? They also received copies of the course and media evaluation forms that had been used to evaluate telecourses during the past several years.

Focus group interviews. Data were gathered for this study using focus group interviewing strategies. The technique of focus group interviews evolved out of group therapy interviews by mental health workers which were conducted for people sharing common problems. During the 1950s, these methods were modified and used to gather consumer opinions and preferences. Focus group interviews are used extensively in marketing research and program evaluation (Patton, 1987).

A focus group interview is an organized group discussion which centers or focuses on a single theme. Like an individual interview, this method is well suited for obtaining detailed information about how people feel about or respond to a program or product. It may provide insight into how and why a program is appealing, or why difficulties were encountered.

A focus group typically consists of a relatively homogeneous group of participants, usually numbering six to eight. As in an individual interview, participants are asked to respond to questions posed by an interviewer. However, in a focus group interview, participants hear the responses of others, may discuss their responses with each other, and may make additional comments beyond their original responses based on that interaction.

Two focus group interviews were conducted for this study. Each of the group interviews was completed by the same individual, a well trained, experienced, third party focus group specialist. The first group consisted of five participants from the northeast region of the state and the second group was made up of six individuals from the central and southeast regions. A video and audio tape record of each focus group proceeding was made. These recordings were then transcribed for use during the analysis portion of the study.

Data Analysis

Multiple strategies were used by the investigators in the analysis of the data collected for this study. Initially, four investigators (the department distance education director, two telecourse faculty members, and the focus group specialist) read through the two separate focus group transcripts independently. Two of the investigators coded the information based on categories of responses that evolved. The other two investigators examined the data for general themes and patterns. The four met to compare analysis strategies and discuss initial impressions of the data.

Following this meeting, each of the four investigators went back to the transcripts and using the codes and themes that were identified, recoded the material. Following the second reading of the data, the investigators focused on the basic themes that emerged from the data and identified support (participant responses) for these within the documentation. An outline reflecting the findings was developed by the four investigators. This outline with the supporting data has been used as the basis for the following discussion.

Results/Discussion

Focus group responses have been organized into three sections. These sections naturally emerged from the individual and collective analysis of the transcripts. The first section deals with the behaviors and instructional activities specific to instructors which contribute to effective television instruction. The second section describes respondents' perceptions relative to the instructor to student and student to student interaction in the telecourses. The third section relates directly to group dynamics and their role in effective learning through television. The last category addresses the findings relative to the facilitator/instructor role in effective televised instruction.

Instructor

The comments generated by the focus group participants about effective instructors center around several major themes: (1) preparation and organization activities, (2) presentation and teaching skills, (3) and instructor interaction skills.

Preparation and organization activities. Respondents valued syllabi that were well constructed and carefully conceived. Well designed syllabi provided distance learners with clear expectations about course requirements and objectives. Additionally, they gave students a sense for the amount of time that will be required to respond to the calendared events, assignments and exams. Carefully crafted syllabi indicated instructors had engaged in advanced planning in preparing for television teaching. This planning was valued by distance learners.

Respondents also mentioned the importance of study guides, presentation outlines, handouts, and other support materials. These were instructional aids that distance learners used in following and responding to course lectures, presentations, media and other instructional activities.

Presentation and teaching skills. A number of important skills were identified by respondents. One of the most valued behaviors in instructors was their capacity to relate directly to distance learners through the eye of the television camera(s). This

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behavior gave students the sensation that they were actually being addressed as participants in an ongoing class. If instructors neglected this important behavior, distance learners had the feeling that they were just watching a class take place rather than being active participants.

Many respondents commented on the use of the chalkboard in television instruction. As a rule, the use of the chalkboard was viewed as ineffective. Often information printed on the chalkboard could not be seen. Writing was often too small, too light in appearance, or illegible. Other problems were related to the amount of time the camera operator chose to stay focused on the chalkboard information. Frequently, camera operators did not allow sufficient time for learners to complete their note taking. Most students preferred materials that were prepared in advance and distributed in the form of a student manual or handouts.

Pacing was also identified as a critical variable. Although it is difficult to identify the exact speed with which instructors should move through their instructional activities; the pacing should not be too slow or too fast. Because of the passive nature of much of the distance learners' television viewing, instructors must go out of their way to involve distance learners with activities that are engaging and presented at a pace that will keep students involved.

Another behavior that received a good deal of attention was the degree to which instructors conveyed the sense that they were "comfortable" with the television format and delivery system. If they were inordinately nervous or "uptight," learners sensed this immediately. Related to this behavior was the degree to which the instructors manifested a sense of humor. Respondents appreciated instructors who made good use of humor in illustrating critical points, relating stories or handling ongoing events in television classroom settings.

Respondents made a number of comments about the importance of having instructors repeat every student question or comment. The reason for this request is simple. Many times sound systems in television studio classrooms do not immediately amplify the first few words that are spoken by a student. Or, the student who is making the comment may neglect to activate his/her microphone. The in-studio instructor may be able to hear the comment or question; however, those in the distance sites or those who view the tape later may not be able to hear the question or comment because of the factors just mentioned. With this in mind, instructors are encouraged to repeat all questions or comments to insure that all learners will be able to benefit from the interactions that are taking place or have taken place.

Interaction

Interaction was perceived and valued in different ways by respondents. Interaction may take many forms (instructor to learner, learner to instructor, and learner to learner). The most important interactions took place in the context of student learning teams (learner to learner) or learning groups. This will be further described in the next major section.

Another critical form of interaction concerned feedback. Respondents felt that feedback regarding assignments, exams, and other projects was critical to their effective learning. In some instances, just the knowledge that one could interact with the instructor or facilitator gave distance learners a sense of security that they could obtain help if they needed it.

Group Dynamics

One of the most interesting outcomes of our focus studies was the discovery of the significant role that learning groups play in television mediated learning. The effects of these learning groups were many and varied. They provided support for the learning activities that are a part of each course and gave distance learners a sense of confidence in their ability to be successful as certification and graduate students. Another related outcome is the type of learning that occurs. Respondents indicated that their television learning accompanied by learning groups was more robust and expansive than learning completed individually. Also, these groups contributed to the motivation of learners to complete courses and continue with their certification or master's programs. Without the group support, some learners said they would have dropped out.

Learning groups provided a solid source of support for discussions. Additionally, these groups furnished the vehicle through which distance learners were able to obtain answers to trivial and important questions. In fact, the learning groups contributed to the feeling that this was a "real" class.

The size, composition, and nature of the learning groups seemed to be optimal. The groups were neither too large or too small (five to six distance learners). The size and informal nature of the groups fostered active question asking and comment making. Also, the groups tended to manage themselves. They often determined the direction, scope, and nature of the learning activities. Finally, many groups perceived the on-campus instructor as a part of the group even though he/she was not physically present.

Facilitators

Respondents suggested several different kinds of tasks and responsibilities that should be demonstrated by effective facilitators. Facilitators must understand and be able to communicate the instructor's expectations for each course. They should be familiar with the course content in order to assist students with assignments. Prior to the course beginning at the distance site, facilitators need to have contacted the campus professor for specific instructions. As the course progresses the facilitator must maintain ongoing (at least weekly) communication with the campus instructor.

Also, facilitators should ensure that needed course materials are available prior to each session. It helps if the tapes and other instructional media are previewed. Familiarity with the video equipment is also critical for successful facilitation of the distance course.

Individuals function in many different capacities in their facilitator role. They need to be actively involved during each class session. They may assist with discussions, provide clarification for students, interpret information from the campus professor, assist with assignments and help students prepare for examinations, maintain order in the class, and generally support and advocate for the distance students. They serve as a critical link to the campus program, and were viewed by the respondents as critical to the success of the program. Given the multiple tasks and expectations, several respondents mentioned the importance of training for the rural course facilitators.

Summary

Effective television teaching is a function of several important ingredients. Distance learners very much value instructors who are well prepared and organized. Preparation and organization are evidenced in the first few minutes of each telecourse as well as throughout each telecourses in carefully designed syllabi, skillfully selected media and interactive presentation guides.

Instructor presentation skills are also essential. Distance learners appreciate instructors who relate to them by directly looking through the television camera lens, appropriately pace their lecture and learning activities, use humor in teaching concepts and responding to periodic instructional problems, appear to be comfortable with the content and the television teaching environment, repeat key questions and comments from distance learners, and make modest use of the blackboard in presenting information. Learners also value timely delivered feedback regarding course assignments, exams and projects.

Distance learners benefit significantly from their involvement with small learning groups. These groups contribute in a variety of ways to the learning of students. One of the most important contributions is the level of support that learners derive from the groups. This support is provided in a number of different ways. These include encouragement to "stay with" or finish various courses, the provision of feedback regarding course related assignments and projects, the answering of trivial and important questions, and the feeling that if one needed help it was readily available within the group.

There is a lot of interest in the relative importance of interaction in television teaching. Distance learners indicate that many of their needs for interaction can and are met within the context of their learning groups or through their on-site facilitators. One of the most important kinds of interaction is the feedback that is delivered to learners about their performance. Again the need for immediate or timely feedback is often handled through on-site course facilitators.

It is clear that distance learners benefit significantly from active involvement with their on-site, master's level facilitators. Skilled facilitators know the course content well, regularly communicate with the on-campus instructors, consistently preview taped programs when appropriate, and clearly understand the expectations of the on-campus course instructors.

Clearly the perceptions of distance learners relative to instruction delivered through television are important. Individuals who are involved in developing and producing instructional programs for teachers and other professions need to be aware of the critical variables that contribute to successful learning through television.

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Table 1

Demographics of Focus Groups Participants

Demographic Features	
Number of Remote Sites Represented by the Focus Group Respondents	6
Average Age of Respondents (range 31 to 47 years of age)	42
Average Number of Live, Interactive Television Courses Completed by Respondents	3.83
Average Number of Professor Plus Television Courses Completed by Respondents	9.83
Average Age of Respondents	42 years

ACRES PRESENTATION
Presenter: Fran Lee
Co-Presenter: Marylyn O'Rourke
Day: March 17, 1991
Time: 4:00pm - 5:00pm

Marylyn O'Rourke, Ph.D.
KACC Paraprofessional Programs
714 S.W. Jackson, Suite D
Topeka, KS 66603

COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRESERVICE TRAINING FOR PARAPROFESSIONALS AND RELATED SERVICES PERSONNEL IN RURAL KANSAS

Progress In Kansas

With the enactment of P.L. 94-142, children with special learning needs were provided the right to a free and appropriate educational program, which, based on the individual needs of the student, is to be provided in the least restrictive environment and to prepare that student for independence. This has resulted in a rapid growth and expansion of special education services. Paired with the growth of special education services has been the use of related services personnel, specifically the instructional paraprofessional. A number of factors have been cited as reasons for the increased use of the paraprofessional (Firth & Lindsey, 1982; Vasa, Streckelberg & Ronnig, 1983), the most critical being a partner in the instructional process (Evans & Evans, 1986).

The State of Kansas, in a period of about ten years, has brought paraprofessional training to a level exemplary to other states. According to 1990 state records 3,976 paraprofessionals were trained through 135,417.23 inservice hours and a total of 5,135 college hours were obtained by paraprofessionals statewide. This training is a result of the Kansas State Department of Education developing and coordinating the statewide paraprofessional facilitator system, developing and circulating administrative and training materials, developing and coordinating a community college facilitator system and evaluating and auditing local programs. This process has been formalized as the role of the paraprofessional, and has been designed by law (K.S.A. 72-962). A training proficiency model consisting of three levels of certification has been established with a minimum number of 20 clock hours per year for each paraprofessional and is enforced through the state department of special education. State sponsored workshops assist local education agencies with this training. A statewide annual paraprofessional workshop was created to expedite the training plans. Currently the State of Kansas has progressed into further refinement of the third phase of the Facilitator Model, the institutionalization and formalization of preservice level training at the State's community college system. Programmatic concepts and lessons are being developed that will be valuable to other states facing the same problems of resources and expanding needs. In an era of scarce monetary resources and expanding special education needs, this effort to effectuate, train and utilize paraprofessionals is a significant goal.

Currently, a number of performance competencies have been indentified as being needed within the repertoire of a competent instructional paraprofessional (Kelly, 1986; Evans & Evans

1986). Among these are materials development and planning skills, behavior management skills, communication and interpersonal skills , and instructional management skills. To meet these competencies, training programs and materials have been developed and are currently available for loan. Further support is provided by two federally funded grants awarded to the Kansas State Department of Education and the Kansas Association of Community Colleges for joint administration. The objectives of the two grants are coordinated in such a way as to impact preservice training of paraprofessionals. One of the components of the project is to provide comprehensive preservice training model including a competency based core curriculum which includes practicum classroom experience at the community college level. Additionally, appropriate training materials and media will be developed for specialized skill training in the areas of integrated, interrelated, and early childhood classroom environments.

Specialized Paraprofessional Skill Training

Integration Programs

Children with disabilities should have access to the same school and community environments and activities as their same-aged peers. Determination of educational placement and access to regular education environments should be based upon a student's individual needs and not his or her disability.

Attending a neighbor school enables students with disabilities to interact with students and adults from their home community on a regular basis. The promotion of understanding and friendships between students with and without disabilities is emphasized as a valued educational activity.

A primary goal of public schools has always been to prepare students for adult life. This goal is the same for students with intensive educational needs. Training paraprofessionals to function in the integrated classroom settings will assist with preparation of students, regardless of disability, for adult life within integrated community settings. This means that students requiring certain services on a "day by day" basis and who are in regular classrooms will have professional staff. This staff may need assistance to meet particular needs of the student with a disabling condition when providing appropriate services and, therefore, will function as part of a specialized team which will include trained paraprofessionals.

Grant objectives include developing a training program to be used with paraprofessionals working in the integrated classroom. This phase of the project includes, completing the literature search, surveying local school personnel working in integrated services, summarizing competencies, validating competencies, defining training objectives and selecting the delivery systems for the curriculum.

Tentative areas of competencies for the curriculum are listed below:

*Communication with special education and general education practitioners about student schedules, instructional goals and evaluating student progress in an integrated/inclusive setting.

*One-on-one tutoring of students in academic subjects using lesson plans and instructional strategies developed by teachers and other professional support staff.

*Operation of computers and adaptive equipment that will enable students with disabilities and other special needs to participate fully in general education.

*Motivation of students to participate in extra-curricular activities and to strengthen skills that will enable students with special needs to become more independent by monitoring and controlling their own behavior.

*Communication with students in their preferred language.

*Assistance of children and youth with disabling conditions to develop self-esteem, develop autonomy, and participate in group activities in the school and community.

*Use of developmentally and age appropriate instructional procedures.

*Knowledge of health, safety and emergency procedures developed by agency.

*Ability to provide special care or physical assistance for students when appropriate.

*Ability to provide instructional assistance and monitoring of large and small groups.

*Ability to collect data, observe and evaluate situations which may relate to learning, problem solving or behavior.

Cross-Categorical Programs

Material is under development for the training of the paraprofessional in the cross-categorical classroom. The number of cross-categorical programs in Kansas has mushroomed over the past three years, likewise the paraprofessionals in the area continue growing at a rapid pace. Records show 914 paraprofessionals working in cross-categorical programs. Types of programs represented in this group are LD/EMR, LD/BD, LD/EMR/BD, EMR/TMR and TMR/SMH. Curriculum developed at this time places emphasis on paraprofessional preparation for familiarization with and implementation of instructional materials, instructional methods, behavior control techniques, utilization of technical terminology and interpersonal skills required to work as part of a team.

Early Childhood Programs

With the implementation of Public Law 99-457 in the fall of 1991, education of all 3-5 year old children with special needs will be the responsibility of the public school system. Therefore, more three, four and five year old children with special needs than ever before will be in public schools. It is the hope of the State of Kansas that this will be a positive experience and that community college training will contribute to quality programs. In preparation for fall of 1991 the State of Kansas purchased a licensure and several sets of media for First Start training which makes possible the training of paraprofessionals in the State of Kansas.

First Start is a nationwide program located at the University of Colorado Health and Sciences Center School of Nursing (UCHSC) in Denver. First Start trains home and center child caregivers, foster parents, education aides, and other paraprofessionals in the care of infants and toddlers with special needs. Such training facilitates paraprofessionals' confidence to care for infants and toddlers with special needs in the same settings in which they care for non-disabled children. Only an estimated five percent of all child caregivers have the training needed to care for children with disabilities and chronic illnesses. Workers often are afraid of children with special needs or are reluctant to deal with special equipment and routines required by these children.

The First Start Program was initiated in 1985 with a grant from the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services. First Start is being used to address Part H, P.L. 99-457 in Colorado.

First Start has a two level approach. The first level brings together health, education, and social services professionals from throughout the country to attend a five-day training session to learn about course dissemination. Upon completion, these professionals 1) are prepared to deliver the 45-hour First Start course of the care of children with special needs to paraprofessionals; 2) can facilitate teaching of the course by interdisciplinary professionals; 3) have familiarity with the procedures used to train professionals; 4) know the available resources used in teaching the 35 lesson plans in First Start, as well as using the audio-visuals obtained through the First Start office.

When paraprofessionals complete the 45-hour First Start course in the area, they have the ability to do the following: 1) begin care for children with disabilities; 2) practice the best kinds of infant care and child rearing practices for children with chronic illnesses and disabilities; 3) help parents and other family members with the special needs of children with chronic illnesses and disabilities; 4)listen to information from the experiences of parents who are adjusting to the care of children with special needs; 5) share information with families of children with special needs and their parents; 6) help in the evaluation of care of children with special needs that is given in the child care home or center and that carries over into the home environment.

First Start classes are divided into four major categories. These are Human Development, Chronic Conditions, Communication and Community Support.

In November, 1990 a training program was held at Barton County Community College for 26 trainers. Six community colleges and 11 local schools or cooperatives were represented. Training sessions at six locations around the state have been implemented.

Training Media Library

Many pieces of media are available for loan to supplement community college training and local education agency training programs. Available paraprofessional media may be divided into the following seven categories. Early Childhood items include cassettes, slides, video tapes and transparencies to accompany the following lesson topics: Down Syndrome, Congenital Heart Defects, Seizures, CPR/Choking, Spina Bifida, Infection Control, Respiratory Conditions, Attitudes, Auditory Impairments, Adaptive Equipment, Visual Impairments, Feeding, Oxygen Therapy, Observation, and Positioning & Handling. Systems supporting paraprofessional functioning are presented through media presentations on the topics of Public Law 94-142, The Facilitator Model and a Core Curriculum for Training Paraprofessionals. Media which presents orientation and new perspectives for various audiences includes videos explaining paraprofessional job orientation for groups such as administrators, general teachers, and paraprofessionals. Other general orientation films include paraprofessionls in rural education, paraprofessionals in a variety of settings, and types of students with whom special education paraprofessionals work in instructional programs. Another type of media has been developed to give paraprofessionals an overview of various disabilities such as learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, hearing impaired, visually impaired, physically handicapped, severely mutliply handicapped children and youth, speech and language handicapped and gifted students. Types of programs reviewed are bilingual, homebound, adaptive physical education, art therapy, pre-vocational and vocational, least restrictive environment, instructional media centers, school psychology, and school social work. Finally, teaching skills are presented in the areas of behavioral control, communications, educational environment, instructional process, classroom management, emergency first aid, and the computer.

Statewide Training System

Three statewide systems which support training of paraprofessionals in Kansas include the fiber-optic communication and instruction system, the paraprofessional facilitator system and the community college facilitator system.

Paraprofessional Facilitator Training Model

A "Facilitator Model" was created to develop a necessary personnel structure and to expedite and provide a more efficient plan for training. Paraprofessionals represent a large, nonhomogeneous and scattered group across the broad geography of Kansas. As stated previously, there are over 3,900 paraprofessionals in thirty-three different categorical programs in a state 412 miles from east to west and 206 miles from northern to southern boundary. Large clusters of paraprofessionals exist in the urban areas of Kansas City, Topeka, and Wichita. In education cooperatives centered around Colby, Dodge City, Garden City, Hutchinson, and Salina. The Colby Cooperative a serves over 10,000 square miles.

The major objective of paraprofessional training in Kansas has been to promote the proficiency of the special education paraprofessional. Proficiency has been defined in three levels and set out by Permit Levels One, Two and Three. The first step in moving toward proficiency is to have all paraprofessionals obtain a Level One Permit, each paraprofessional must participate in at least four inservice sessions for a total of 20 clock hours as required by the state for personnel reimbursement. Application for the permit is made by the employing district to the State Department of Education. The local education agency or paraprofessional may choose to substitute all or part of the inservice hours with an equivalent amount of college training taken during the year. The paraprofessional permit defines its possessor as a "special education paraprofessional". Paraprofessionals, by law (K.S.A. 72-962), are permitted to perform instructional tasks, whereas teacher aides are designated, by law, to "supervise pupils for noninstructional activities" (K.S.A. 72-1106). The next objective for training is to elevate the paraprofessional beyond minimum program standards. Requirements for Permit Level Two are two years of experience as an instructional paraprofessional, and the completion of 30 semester college hours, an equivalent of 450 clock hours of inservice training, or a combination of college and inservice training hours to total 450 clock hours. One hour of college credit is equated as 15 clock hours. Requirements for Permit Level Three, are the completion of the three years of experience or an equivalent of 900 clock hours of inservice training, completion of the 60 semester college hours, or a combination of the two to total 900 clock hours.

Presently, workshops sponsored by the Kansas State Department of Education provide approximately 16 hours of inservice training in two sessions, a regional workshop and a statewide conference. Many districts rely on the state sponsored activities to assist them in meeting their training requirements. Through these sessions, paraprofessionals have been able to obtain the minimum level of proficiency through a combination of state and local resources. As mentioned previously, the local education agencies are not able to provide the minimum amount of training without drawing on state-sponsored workshops.

Rules, guidelines, and monitoring techniques are important components of the Kansas program, which is built, in concept and operation, on a "Facilitator Model". This model is built on the use of representatives (called facilitators) from the local educational agencies, private and institutional settings. The facilitators are trained by state department of education specialists. In turn, these local representatives help develop programs for paraprofessionals in their local areas and then recruit and train personnel.

The Kansas State Department of Education is responsible for developing and coordinating the statewide facilitator system, developing and circulating administrative and training materials, and evaluating and auditing local programs.

Standards for the use of paraprofessionals are outlined in a state facilitator model manual, various audiovisual programs, and a pamphlet has been developed for training.

The facilitator model is as much a communication model as a training model. It is designed to communicate facts and attitudes from the state level, through an intermediary (facilitator), to the local education agency directly involved in providing services to exceptional children. Also, as trainers, the facilitators develop and implement local training programs for paraprofessionals. Often the facilitator plays the role of mentor to paraprofessionals, administrators and teachers, especially when those new to the system are not aware of the role of the paraprofessional. Facilitators may be special education directors or assistant directors, teachers, paraprofessionals, or other support personnel.

Other objectives of the facilitator model include:
*Directing the development of programs
*Developing training materials
* Involving state colleges and universities in training teachers to work with paraprofessionals
*Assisting community colleges in developing paraprofessional training programs.
*Fostering an inter-state paraprofessional communication network

Community College Facilitator Model

Development of paraprofessional training sequences at the community college level is one method to institutionalize the necessary training. Community colleges in Kansas are attached to the higher education system, but are given the authority to contract with unified school districts to provide services. A core curriculum helps to maintain uniformity among training programs.

In Kansas, 19 community colleges have been identified as the institutions which will deliver preservice paraprofessional training. Training programs through an "inservice/preservice" model are employed particularly with paraprofessionals and other non-degreed support staff. They have already begun in several of the colleges and the coordination and expansion of these efforts is the next goal. With the administration of the community college system under the jurisdiction of the State Board of Education, this arrangement offers a unique opportunity to develop a centralized coordinated network for preservice training of paraprofessionals in Kansas. Kansas Community Colleges have established an agreement by which each institution covers a specific service area. This agreement of territorial limitation promotes a greater willingness to seek uniformity among programs throughout the state and avoid wasteful duplication of training opportunities.

The community college facilitator model is similar to the paraprofessional model. An individual from the college is appointed facilitator and they assist with program implementation and recruitment of students in the paraprofessional career area. Selection of this individual is crucial to the success of the training program. Training is offered through different community college programs and the facilitator will be especially knowledgeable when representing that program and when setting up paraprofessional training. Presently, many of the 19 community college facilitators have the following positions: Dean of Instruction, Dean of Outreach and Curriculum, Dean of Community Education and Director of Continuing Education.

The following core curriculum has been developed through federal grants as a culmination of other statewide activities to provide support for development of community college preservice programs.

Four basic competency areas have emerged and have been included in the core curriculum. The basic areas are communication skills, behavior management techniques, the instructional process and arranging the education environment. The core curriculum consists of the following courses:
*Overview of special education paraprofessionalism
*Overview of special education categorical areas
*Behavior and classroom management
*Human growth and development
*General instructional competencies for special education paras
*Courses in professional and personal skills
*A set of electives
*A practicum consisting of varied course credit

The community college system plans to meet needs of paraprofessionals based on geographical and cyclical information. One of three types of programs may be offered depending upon information collected. An associates of arts degree is made available through an approved program of study at the state level. The AA degree program is the most permanent arrangement of course offerings in the college and requires a minimum of 64 hours of study. The vocational certificate program requires fewer hours of study and the Business/Industrial programs are offered one course at a time in a temporary and very flexible manner. In the State of Kansas there are five community colleges offering degree programs, five community colleges offering some course work and six community colleges offering vocational certificates to paraprofessionals. Two of the community colleges offer programs in interpretor training.

The advantages of the community college system usually include: student housing, child care, food service, special services for disabled students, adult basic education, basic skill training, career planning, placement, intercollegiate and intramural athletics, testing/assessment, student activities, student government, counseling, and clubs and organizations.

Another attractive feature of the community college system is student financial services. Need-based assistance and other financial assistance is available to both full-time and half-time students. Need based assistance is in the form of grants, scholarships, vocational rehabilitation funds, Bureau of Indian Affairs funds, federal government five percent loans, deferred payment loans and

Bureau of Indian Affairs funds, federal government five percent loans, deferred payment loans and college work study programs. Other financial assistance takes the form of athletic grants, vocational education scholarships, veterans educational benefits, supplemental loans for students/parent loans, employment opportunities and notetaker stipends for students who wish to take notes for hearing-impaired students in their classes.

Community College Facilitator Role

* Mentor students in paraprofessional programs by answering questions and providing information on benefits such as possible child care while in class and financial assistance services provided by the community college.
* Coordinate between paraprofessionals, local school systems/cooperatives and appropriate community college programs to establish new classes for paraprofessional training.
* Coordinate with the community college program instructor and the State Director of Community College Programs to complete the course accreditation process. This facilitates the process of transferring credits to a four year institution if the student desires.
* Coordinate with the State Department of Special Education and KACC Paraprofessional Programs to provide information to area community colleges about courses and training material specifically created for paraprofessionals training.
* Coordinate the establishment of classes off campus when necessary. Community colleges have the flexibility to send an instructor and materials out to the local school or a central location to accommodate student travel distance and schedules.
* Provide assistance when requested by recommending qualified instructors in the area for specific paraprofessional training courses where requested.
* Promote consistency in courses by providing consultation resources and media information fron the State Department of Special Education and KACC Paraprofessional Programs.
* Actively work with paraprofessional student recruitment, career awareness and career development.

Statewide Fiber Optic Training Model

Paraprofessionals were the first completers of the First Class presented through the fiber-optic system in Kansas. This system provides the capability for a classroom to actually be extended to different locations without losing the interaction between students and the teacher or among the classrooms and students in other classrooms. The instructor can see all of the classrooms and students concurrently. Students can ask questions of the teacher at any time during the class period. When the teacher responds to questions, all students can see and hear both the student asking the question and the teacher answering it. A teacher can ask a question and see all of the students before indicating which student should respond. All other students can see both the respondent and the teacher answering the questions.

As our smaller rural communities continue to lose health care and other social services, it is feasible that the school will be the site where many of their services can be consolidated. The schools already have nurses, psychologists, counselors, food service and space for physical conditioning. In order to maintain some form of quality of life in small communities and/or increase the success rate of the poorly motivated, underachieving student, some of the schools will have to restructure their role in the community to provide services to the underserved.

This training model will make it possible to train paraprofessionals in areas such as the Colby cooperative which serves 10,000 square miles. Currently small networks around the state have been formed with plans for much more extensive connections within this next year. The following network connections are currently available: Eight schools in the northwest section, ten schools in the southwest section, nine schools in the south central section and three in the southeast section. An Exceptional Child class for paraprofessionals mentioned earlier was completed in the summer of 1990 using the fiber optic system of instruction in the southwest section.

Kansas Paraprofessional Training Program Growth

Evidence of acceptance and support of the role of the paraprofessional in the state of Kansas can be seen as time passes. Ten years ago paraprofessionals received hourly wages with no benefits in many schools. As of the 1990 school year, the majority of school districts provide job descriptions, salary schedules, career ladders, contracts, evaluations and sick leave or personal days.

As stated at the opening of this paper, increased use of paraprofessionals requires training. The state of Kansas has developed systems and curriculum to meet this training need with the goal in mind of preparing students for independence in the least restrictive environment.

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